The Outlook

DECEMBER 10, 1919

D'ANNUNZIO AND ITALY

Can Time's revenges further go
Than Dante to d'Annunzio?

THESE lines, attributed to Dr. David Starr Jordan, express the feelings of many Italians, not only as a contrast in literary achievement, but also as a contrast in the political activity of two poets. There is no question, however, as to the incessant political and military activity of the latter-day poet. Following his capture of Fiume and his descent upon Zara his troops have again set forth on another expedition, presumably for the purpose of occupying the port of Sebenico, near Zara, on the Dalmatian coast.

On the one hand the Italian Government faces the practically unanimous sentiment of the Italian people, as expressed by the King on December 1 in opening Parliament at Rome, when he said that through the war Italy had gained some of her natural frontiers, but not all; that the aspirations of Italy in the Adriatic did not cloak any military design and for the most part possessed

Paul Thompson

D'ANNUNZIO

no economic value; that they were confined to the defense of native ideals; and that the protection of Italian populations was the duty and imprescriptible right of Italy.

On the other hand, the Supreme Council at Paris in settling the war seems still dominated by President Wilson, who, it is announced, has rejected the latest Italian proposal, which is to make of Fiume an autonomous buffer state, adjoining both Italian and Croat territory.

Fiume is another proof of the fact that the war is not yet completely ended and will not be until, as in the occupied regions of Germany, the Allied forces shall have been permanently withdrawn. The Dalmatian coast is still enemy territory. The Allies took it from the Government of Austria-Hungary under the terms of the armistice, and its formal cession to those Governments was made by the present Austrian Government in the treaty of peace which was signed at St. Germain. By the terms of the treaty the Austrian Government agrees to sanction any distribution of this territory made by the Allies. As, owing to the conflicting claims of Italy and Jugoslavia to Fiume and the Dalmatian area, the Supreme Council has been unable to reach a decision, Fiume is still under the trusteeship of the Allies. Of course d'Annunzio's forcible seizure is the sign and the natural consequence of the inability on the part of the trustees to come to an agreement among themselves.

THE NEW ITALIAN AMBASSADOR

The appointment of Baron Romano Avezzano as Ambassador to Washington has produced an excellent impression in diplomatic circles, where the new Ambassador's activities in various parts of the world are well known. After the Boxer insurrection in China he became Minister there and showed signal ability in helping to settle that complicated situation. After the assassination of King Alexander he was sent to Serbia, also unofficially representing England, which for a year and a half refused to have any relations with the new King. As Minister to Brazil Baron Avezzano concluded important agreements concerning Italian emigration, and these are now being used as models to regulate Italian emigration in different countries of the world. During the war he was intrusted with a confidential mission to Montenegro, where he undertook to bring the royal family into safety. A still more important mission was intrusted to him later in Greece, where relations with Italy had reached an acutely unpleasant stage.

His success in Greece as elsewhere leads men to believe that he may be equally successful here. He understands our country, knowing it from an intimate standpoint, as his wife is an American woman.

The new Ambassador's chief thought in coming here is the Adriatic problem, in which America, he says, as reported, "has become such a decisive element in this controversy, and has been worked upon by an intense propaganda, certainly not to our

Graphic News

BARON ROMANO AVEZZANO, ITALIAN AMBASSADOR TO THE UNITED STATES

Photographed on his arrival at New York on the Mauretania, with Baroness Avezzano and their daughter Yolanda

advantage. . . . We hope," he adds, "that the question of Fiume and our eastern frontier will soon be settled according to national aspirations. . . . For this it is essential that the two peoples know each other better. Undoubtedly the American people have an incomplete notion of what the new Italy is. . . . My policy, therefore, is clearly laid down to promote an intimate knowledge between the two peoples."

THE CORRESPONDENCE WITH MEXICO

The exchange of notes between the American and Mexican Governments in relation to the case of the American consular agent, Jenkins, has thrown light on a number of circumstances germane to the case, which were obscure during the first phase of the controversy. Jenkins, it appears, is now held solely on the charge of "rendering false judicial testimony." Thus the reports that the Mexican Government had arrested Jenkins because of collusion with the bandits who abducted him are not sustained. The

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Mexican note, which was signed by Señor Medina, Sub-Secretary of Foreign Relations, contended that the Jenkins case was entirely an affair of the State of Puebla, in whose jurisdiction Jenkins was arrested, and that the Mexican Federal Government could not constitutionally intervene. Señor Medina pointed out that "in the United States on several occasions Mexican consuls have suffered imprisonment for some acts involving the law of the United States.

Underwood & Underwood
WILLIAM O. JENKINS

Although, in the opinion of the Mexican Government, such imprisonment was not justifiable, never has it asked that the laws of the United States should not be applied in each case. . . . Neither in the United States nor in Mexico can a citizen on trial be released by order of the Executive. It would be strange if in Mexico an American citizen had more rights than he enjoys in his own country or more than a Mexican in his own country."

In reply to this, Secretary Lansing's communication, as delivered by the American chargé d'affaires in Mexico City, points out that "the Mexican Constitution specifically gives the Federal tribunal jurisdiction of 'all cases concerning diplomatic agents and consular officers.'" The Lansing note concludes with the charge that there has been "a studied effort on the part of Mexican authorities to ensnare Jenkins in the intricacies of legal proceedings by alleging the commission of technical offenses and by bringing unsupported charges against him" in order to divert the attention of Americans and Mexicans alike from the actual situation, namely, "that Puebla, the capital of the State of Puebla, and perhaps the second largest city in Mexico, is without adequate protection from outlaws who infest the immediate neighborhood and who are accustomed openly and freely to visit the city without hindrance." The note closes with the statement that the American Government believes that the charge against Jenkins is unfounded and that the Government of the United States "must renew its request for the immediate release of Consular Agent Jenkins from further imprisonment." An irregularly published anti-Carranza newspaper of Mexico City called "Revolución" has printed an alleged communication from the bandit Cordova, who kidnapped Jenkins, declaring that Jenkins was in no way in collusion with the bandits, who abducted the American consular agent with the main object of politically discrediting the Carranza Government. The authenticity of this supposed communication from Cordova is questioned, however, by the American Government.

There is nothing in the Jenkins case at present to lead one to expect immediate action. The use of the word "request" in the American note leaves it open for Carranza to indulge in further correspondence, and those who know him best doubt that he will order the annulment of the arrest of Jenkins unless presented with an absolute ultimatum by the United States. Jenkins has been offered the privilege of going out on bail, but prefers to remain in prison.

The execution of General Angeles by the Carranza Government evoked many expressions of regret from the numerous American friends of the Mexican general. There is no question, however, but that Carranza's action was perfectly within his rights. Although a person of many high individual qualities, Angeles has been for four years the right-hand man of the bandit Villa, and it may be argued that his removal may go far toward bringing about that restoration of law and order in northern Mexico which many communications from the United States to Carranza have urged the Mexican President to accomplish.

BULGARIA SIGNS

At Neuilly, the suburb of Paris, the Bulgarian Prime Minister has affixed his signature to the Peace Treaty on behalf of Bulgaria. By the terms of this treaty Bulgaria must pay an indemnity of nearly $450,000,000; must allow Rumania to remain in the Dobrudja; must give up, to the east, the Strumitza triangle to Serbia, and, to the south, must give up most of Thrace to Greece; the matter of a corridor through Thrace to give Bulgaria access to the Ægean is left to future determination. Finally, Bulgaria must abolish compulsory military service and limit her army to 20,000 men.

These conditions, which the Bulgarian Minister at Washington denounces as humiliating, are precisely what Bulgaria deserves. Her action before and throughout the war was contemptible and she simply reaps what she has sown.

As a last drop of bitterness, however, the Paris Peace Conference arranged matters so that there should be no splendid ceremonies attendant upon the signing of this treaty, such as took place at Versailles when the Germans signed or at St. Germain when the Austrians signed. The signature at Neuilly was simply accomplished at the office of the Mayor!

"PUSSYFOOT" JOHNSON "PLAYS CRICKET"

At the invitation of British temperance workers, Mr. William E. Johnson (who earned the nickname of "Pussyfoot" because of his quiet and effective way of enforcing the liquor laws in our own West) went to England to help out the British prohibitionists in their efforts to put the British Isles on a dry footing. Mr. Johnson came in for a tirade of abuse from the British press, which pictured him as a conventional prohibitionist of the kill-joy variety—the kind of prohibitionist which Mr. Kirby, of the New York "World," delights to draw.

But England has now discovered that it has mistaken its man. A few weeks ago "Pussyfoot" Johnson was seized by a crowd of medical students and carried off in what was intended to be a grand

Underwood & Underwood
WILLIAM E. ("PUSSYFOOT") JOHNSON

lark. He fought back until he discovered that no personal injury was intended, and, as he afterwards said: "As soon as I knew what the boys were after I played the game with them. I want to assure them that, in my opinion, they played their game fair, too. They 'played cricket.'" Unfortunately, what was in-

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tended as a lark has had serious consequences. For in the scrimmage Mr. Johnson's left eye was so badly injured that it has been found necessary to remove it.

His cheerful good sportsmanship has earned for Mr. Johnson the almost unanimous respect of his opponents. The medical students have come forward with a sincere and contrite apology for their adventure, one of the leading newspapers opposing his campaign has started to raise a fund for his benefit, and the Lord Chancellor has declared that no matter how much Britons may disagree with Mr. Johnson's views, from now on he will have a respectful hearing in Great Britain.

NO COAL COMPROMISE YET

The return to strict Government regulation of the consumption of soft coal, however it may irk many consumers, is a measure of sound common sense after the failure of miners and operators to come to an agreement at the Washington conference.

It is unfortunate that members of the Government could not themselves agree as to what was a fair settlement of the dispute. The fact that Secretary of Labor Wilson was known to have favored a thirty-one per cent wage increase naturally strengthened the disinclination of the miners to accept the fourteen per cent increase urged by Fuel Administrator Garfield and the majority of the Cabinet.

The coal operators have agreed to the suggested fourteen per cent increase in wages to be met solely by them without any increase in the price of coal. They contend, however, that the National adoption of this scale will force some mines to close.

With the miners apparently firm in their determination not to return to work until they get their thirty-one per cent increase and with the reserve coal supply which was on hand when the strike began rapidly dwindling, the coal strike becomes the National problem of the hour. All the more reason why we should keep our heads. Such statements as that issued by the former Secretary of the Treasury, William G. McAdoo, in which wholesale charges were made that "in the year 1917 many mine owners made shocking and indefensible profits on bituminous coal," do not help to clarify the situation. Not only have conditions changed since 1917, but former Secretary McAdoo in many cases seems to have overlooked the payment of taxes by the coal owners. When taxes have been deducted profits that hitherto may have seemed "shocking and indefensible" become quite moderate. In 1917 in the industry as a whole $2.61 a ton was realized on soft coal. Deducting the average cost of production of $2.15 a ton, there was left a margin of forty-six cents a ton. The Federal taxes alone were thirty cents a ton that year. Thus there was left only some sixteen cents a ton on the average to cover return on investment. And yet twenty-five cents a ton profit was permitted by the President during the war, while this same amount was construed as a fair profit by the Federal Trade Commission under the Lever Act.

Conditions vary greatly in different mines. Under circumstances where one mine would make a profit another would turn in a loss. To cite cases of gigantic profits here and there is, or has the effect of being, a cheap way of arousing prejudice for political purposes, which makes the attainment of a just and widespread solution of this National problem more difficult than ever.

THE PEOPLE OF KANSAS BECOME COAL MINERS

Volunteer miners have been digging coal in Kansas under military protection and under the orders of Governor Allen.

Bain News Service

HENRY J. ALLEN, GOVERNOR OF KANSAS

From all over the State, despatches stated last week, men were coming who were determined that no strike or labor rebellion against the will of the people should prevent the working of the mines. One train bringing assistance was partly wrecked and delayed. The account of the accident has this picturesque statement:

> The train bore two hundred and fifty workers, college men from the University of Kansas, the Kansas State Agricultural College, and Washburn College. Among the Kansas University workers were many members of its football team, who volunteered for mining duty in response to an appeal between the halves of the Missouri-Kansas football game at Lawrence.

The union miners, it is said, are puzzled by the attitude of the volunteers! But nothing is simpler than that men and business will have fuel for their families and their shops. To refuse to produce food or fuel is an outrage against humanity. Against such revolt there is law, and, if needed, force available.

In Kansas the Governor and the courts are acting on quite a different basis from the illegal seizures attempted in North Dakota, as described in The Outlook last week. Governor Allen is acting under the orders of the Kansas Supreme Court, and there is evident no intention to establish permanent State ownership.

THE PUBLIC'S RIGHT IN COAL

There are two principles of Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence which are well settled and by which both the State and the Federal Governments should be controlled in dealing with the present coal-mine problem:

Private property cannot be taken for public use without compensation.

Private property can be taken for public use with compensation.

Bolshevism denies the first. It confiscates private property and makes no compensation. Its motive is, "Private property is robbery." Feudalism denies the second. It denies the right of the state to take private property. Its motive is, "What's mine's mine own."

The reply of Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence to the Bolshevik is, "Thou shalt not steal." To take private property from its owner without compensation is robbery. It is as criminal for the state as for the individual to be a robber. The reply of Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence to the feudal lord is, "Your right to your property is subject to the rights of the community." If the owner's control of his property is injurious to the community, the community has a right to take it from him and pay him, not whatever he demands, but whatever an impartial tribunal selected by the community decides to be its value. It destroys a private house to widen a city street; it takes a section of a private farm to build a railway or an aqueduct; but it pays whatever sum the courts award to the owner.

Coal is essential to the life of the community. If the owner of the coal mine cannot operate the mine so as to furnish coal to the community at a reasonable price, the community may take possession of the coal mine and operate the mine for the benefit of the community. It must pay the private owner the value of the coal it has taken during its occupancy of the mine if the occupancy is temporary, or the value of the mine if its occupancy is permanent. Every pains must be taken to ascertain what is a just and fair compensation; but the final decision rests neither with the private owner nor with

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the executive of the state, but with the courts, which have been created for the purpose of determining just such questions.

THE PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE

Of two of the subjects most urgently pressing for action in Congress—the Peace Treaty, or rather treaties, and the return of the railways to private control—the President in his annual Message, sent to Congress on December 2, said only that he would postpone them for later consideration.

The President urged "legislation looking to the establishment of a budget system." He expressed his belief that the preparation of the budget should be left to the Executive, but that when prepared the budget should be submitted to a single committee of each House of Congress for amendment or approval. He stated concisely the chief argument for the budget system. There is no real argument against the adoption of a budget system which can be based on public interest. The obstacles in the way of it are those created by long custom and by the difficulties of adapting such a system to American conditions. On these obstacles the President undertook to throw no light. The Presidential indorsement of this reform, which was advocated by Mr. Wilson's Republican predecessor, is welcome to those who believe that this is not a party question.

The President recommended the simplification of the Income and Excess Profits Taxes. On this matter there ought not to be any party division.

The President furthermore recommended that the subject of foreign commerce, which has been a party question, especially as pertaining to the tariff, should be dealt with solely in consideration of the public interest "in the light of utterly changed conditions." Economic views held during our growth as a Nation are, he intimated, subject to change, now that "American business is full grown, and that America is the greatest capitalist in the world." In connection with this he said: "If we want to sell, we must be prepared to buy." In particular he asked special consideration for the dyestuff industry, not only because of our former dependence on German supplies, but more especially because of the necessity of maintaining chemical plants as a measure of military prudence.

Recognizing the essential service of the farmer to the Nation, the President laid before Congress the importance of promoting production, improving marketing, and making rural life attractive and healthful.

Reiterating and quoting what he said in his last message, the President urged legislative action to assist the return of our soldiers to civil life.

THE PRESIDENT ON INDUSTRIAL UNREST

The subject to which the President devoted most space in his message was that of the cause and cure of industrial unrest. Regarding it as temporary, he nevertheless urged action along several lines.

He would increase the power of the Federal Government to deal in its criminal courts with persons who would abrogate our institutions by violence; he would extend at once Federal food control to a period beyond the end of the war; he would prevent abuses in manipulation of the necessaries of life by regulation of inter-State commerce; he would have money appropriated for publicity in food control; he would regulate cold storage by Federal law; and would require goods in inter-State commerce to be marked with the producer's price; he would require Federal license for corporations engaged in inter-State commerce; he urged further constructive measures for removing wrongs which cause dissatisfaction among workers and for the democratization of industry; and pointed to the standards enunciated in the labor section of the Treaty of Versailles; and he would have the Government recognize the right of collective bargaining.

Declaring the right to strike to be inviolate, he placed the right of the Government to protect the people as predominant. As against "direct action" he held up arbitration by an established tribunal as the proper means of settling labor disputes; and in contrast to the road of disorder and revolution he pointed to the road of "justice and orderly process."

A RADICAL CAVE OF ADULLAM

Probably few of the delegates to the recent Labor Party National Convention in Chicago believed that they were to witness the birth of a real political party. Organized labor in this country in the large majority is opposed to working through a separate political party. The fact that in Great Britain there is a powerful Labor Party is due to quite different conditions from those that obtain here. Not even the Reds should logically want a labor party organized as are the Republican and Democratic parties, for that political system is far removed from soviet ideals.

No; the delegates to this Convention were simply there to ride their hobbies, to find sympathy from other hobbyists, and to exploit their views on all sorts of things through the newspapers. Some of their resolutions are sound, some are nothing but sound. They seem to have discussed almost everything. Even industrial questions were touched on now and then, although this Labor Convention nearly forgot them in the flood of debate about the Irish Republic, prohibition, Russia, the desirability of soviet government, Mexico, free hospitals for every one, the "tyrannical" action of New York's Board of Education in not letting teachers have a week off to come as delegates to the Convention, the high cost of living, Nationalizing coal mines, Governmental news distributing agencies, the abolition of the United States Senate, and many other things.

The "party" has a platform which is chiefly a collection of opinions; it has no candidates as yet, and we venture to assert that its vote will be negligible and will come rather from the "lunatic fringe" and the Anarchists than from the rank and file of labor.

KANSAS FARMERS HIT THE NAIL ON THE HEAD

The Kansas Board of Agriculture has issued a statement setting forth the attitude of Kansas farmers with regard to agriculture in relation to the country's present industrial and economic condition, which contains much sane and sensible advice. Here is some of it:

> Americanism is under attack. American patriotism is now being tested as never before. The social and industrial unrest which came upon us as a reflex of the great war has permeated our country to an extent which demands the best thought and the sanest action of all Americans.
>
> The one and only remedy for this great unrest is to be found in an increased production in all lines of industry. The nation must go to work to recoup the tremendous losses of the war and so place our agricultural, commercial, and industrial machinery upon a stable basis. Capital should be satisfied with a fair return on the investment and the wages of labor so adjusted as to insure a good and comfortable living for the worker.
>
> The American farmer numbers more than thirty millions, and constitutes the largest business element of the country. He is the producer upon whom all depend for food, and should he be so unpatriotic as to follow the advice of the agitator, he would limit production so as to increase prices and all classes would pay an exorbitant amount for food. The problems which confront us are unparalleled in our history and can only be met by the patriotism, intelligence, industry, and economy of the American people.
>
> The American farmer patriotically does his work. He does not strike. In him lies that stability which will prove the salvation of our country. We challenge capital and labor to stand together, shoulder to shoulder with agriculture, upon the platform of Americanism.

Things have not changed much since the author of "Proverbs" wrote, "He that

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CARTOONS OF THE WEEK

Cassel in the New York World

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WHY WAIT TILL 1920?

Fitzpatrick in the St. Louis Post-Dispatch

POOR SUBSTITUTES

Harding in the Brooklyn Eagle

"TROUBLE COMING TO A HEAD"

From Hvepsen, Christiania, Norway

NORWAY GOES DRY

Already the good effects of prohibition are visible. Profiteer Petersen has left Norway for Paris!

Sullivant in Blighty (London)

Noah! "How stupid of me! There's nothing to do but fish, and there are only two worms on board."

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withholdeth corn, the people shall curse him."

When the Kansas Board of Agriculture says that the one and only remedy for the present unrest "is to be found in an increased production in all lines of industry," it hits the nail on the head.

Bees, for instance, know what the drone does to the high cost of bee living. The remedy of the bee world could hardly be acceptable by humanitarians, but our two-legged drones might study the example of the working bee with profit.

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THE BRAZILIAN COFFEE HOUSE, AT 108 W. 44TH ST., NEW YORK CITY, MANAGED BY THEODORE ROOSEVELT'S SONS

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE FROM A BRAZILIAN COFFEE HOUSE

When the announcement was made that Theodore Roosevelt's sons, his son-in-law, Dr. Richard Derby, and his cousin, Philip Roosevelt, had opened a coffee house, the fact at once found its way into the newspaper headlines. Such facts usually do.

But the little English-basement room on West Forty-fourth Street, New York City, where this venture was launched and from which this editorial correspondence is "dated," does not seem, at first sight, as imposing an affair as the noise of its birth-cry might lead some to suppose. It is just the size of hundreds of other little city restaurants—one lot wide and as deep as the front part of an old brownstone house. Its walls are decorated with a few Brazilian prints of the harbor of Rio and of the national heroes of the Brazilian Republic. The prints are almost as bad as some which have been produced in the United States, but they are more than justified as "atmosphere."

Indeed, the atmosphere of the coffee house is the first thing to strike the nostrils of a stranger. There is no doubt that it is a coffee house that one is entering and not a casual café where all odors are reduced to a common denominator of stuffiness. The atmosphere of the coffee house is rich and stimulating. If its managers were profiteers, they would charge so much a breath.

After the atmosphere has been duly appreciated, the stranger will next observe that the little tables at the side of the room are equipped with writing paper and envelopes. Shades of all American hotel-keepers! Do the managers really intend to encourage their patrons to stay beyond the conventional period required to "gobble and git"? Apparently they do. And this willingness to have their customers loaf and invite their souls is the most attractive feature of this new type of lunch-room.

Now that the brass rail and the polished bar have been banished from American life a social substitute must be found which can be conducted on sound business principles and at a profit. It is possible that the leisurely and cleanly coffee house may prove to be the solution. If it is, it will succeed in supplying a contemplative element to American life which has hitherto, outside of the circle of the rural cracker barrel, been almost wholly lacking. There is no telling what a profound effect it might have on our politics if Americans should start thinking while they ate.

LORD LEVERHULME

Lord Leverhulme, who has been called the unofficial British Prime Minister of Industry, and whose experiments in the modernizing of relations between capital and labor have long made his name a familiar one on this side of the Atlantic, is now on a visit to this country. He is head, among other things, of the great English firm of Lever Brothers, soap manufacturers, whose factory and residential buildings at Port Sunlight are regarded as models of industrial achievement. Though he has labored for the improvement of the conditions of his employees and his industry, Lord Leverhulme is no doctrinaire. His progressiveness has been justified by its business success—a justification which all experiments in industrial relations must find if they are to endure.

Recently, Lord Leverhulme's plans were widely discussed in this country when it was announced in the newspapers that he had put into effect a six-hour day in his plant. According to an interview with Lord Leverhulme which appeared in the New York "Tribune," the six-hour day is not in operation at Port Sunlight, and cannot be put into effect until the English trades unions and the English laws permit. Lord Leverhulme believes that the six-hour day can be applied only to industries in which the overhead charges under the present system are at least as much as the weekly pay bill.

This does not mean a factory running six hours a day, but twelve, with two shifts of workers. A six-hour shift and a twelve-hour day is a better combination, he believes, than an eight-hour shift and a sixteen-hour day, because the eight-hour shift necessarily disturbs the family life of the workers.

In the interview in the "Tribune" Lord Leverhulme makes a striking statement of the economic advantage of "sweating machines and not labor." He says:

Paul Thompson

LORD LEVERHULME

> If a machine wears out in half the present normal time the world is richer, for a new machine has to be made to replace it, and that means more work for the workman and more pay for his work, a new machine sold for more money for the manufacturer, which becomes more dividends for the stockholders. But if a man wears out in half

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the time the world is poorer, and that needs no demonstration.

Lever Brothers have what they call a copartnership system of securing the interest of their employees in the well-being of their firm. This is a system by which their employees receive interest-bearing certificates on a basis of from five to ten per cent of their annual wages. These certificates pay interest at a rate which is five per cent less than that paid on the common stock of the company. Some five million dollars' worth of copartnership certificates have already been distributed and an additional issue of five million dollars' worth has been authorized. When an employee leaves the company his copartnership certificates are surrendered.

WE MAKE A WILLING CORRECTION

In an editorial review of the record of the recent Convention of the American Legion, a review which concluded with the words "Hats off to the American Legion," we took exception to a few planks in its platform.

The most important criticism dealt with the record of the Convention on the question of preparedness. We compared it with the pre-war record of the present Administration on the issue of universal training. Surely members of the Legion might have been tempted to quote the adage, "Comparisons are odious." We based our criticism on the fact that the Legion declared for universal military training while condemning compulsory service in time of peace. At first blush this seemed to us very much like Mr. Wilson's "universal voluntary system of military training."

We are told that we are in error in our interpretation. What the Legion demands is a real system of universal military training. What it is emphatically against is compulsory service in a standing army in time of peace after the designated period of training is completed. With this decision of the Legion we are in hearty and absolute sympathy. We therefore gladly withdraw this criticism which we made of the platform of the Legion. We have seldom made a correction which it gave us as much pleasure to record.

CHURCH UNITY

Representatives of many churches in the East and Middle West of the United States and Canada met lately in the city of New York to press forward the plan for a preliminary World Conference on Faith and Order to be held in the summer of 1920.

Delegates were present from the Church of England in Canada; the Methodist and Presbyterian Churches of the Dominion; and from the Episcopal, Methodist, Congregational, Presbyterian, Baptist, and Lutheran Churches of the United States. An international touch was added by the presence of delegates from the Armenian and Bulgarian Churches.

It was unanimously felt that the time was ripe for the taking of practical steps towards Church Unity. While the time and place of the Conference were left to the Commission of the Episcopal Church on Faith and Order, it is probable that the Conference will be held in London.

With the solitary exception of the Church of Rome, every organized Christian body in the world has now expressed its willingness to be represented at the Conference.

MEXICO

THE Mexican question has again become very ominous. No matter what its solution may be, the final settlement involves very grave consequences for this country and perhaps for the world. It therefore behooves every American to consider the situation without passion, prejudice, or selfishness, and to study the factors which compose the problem.

In the first place, it must be admitted that for several years Mexico has been an annoying, irritating, and disturbing neighbor. That the fault for this condition is not wholly that of the people of the United States is demonstrated by the fact that during the same period we have maintained perfectly friendly and pleasant relations with our Canadian neighbors, who come into contact with us on a frontier far longer than the Mexican border, and with whom we have political and commercial relations quite as important and complex as those which we have tried to hold with Mexico.

It is true that we ought not to permit buccaneers or adventurers to attempt to exploit Mexico and then to draw us into a physical defense of their exploitation. But there are thousands of Americans who have gone to Mexico legitimately, who have lived there in an orderly fashion, and who have established their business in perfect good faith; and there are millions of dollars of American capital properly and legally invested in enterprises in Mexico. It is a principle both of morals and of international law that citizens of one country living and doing business in another country in an orderly and proper fashion should receive the protection of their own country against outrage or injustice practiced by the citizens or the Government of the country in which they are living. That legitimate American interests in Mexico have sorely suffered is no longer a matter of argument. The American Government has been patient, some think too patient; but the recently published note of the State Department addressed to the Government of Mexico leaves no room for doubt that our Government believes that Mexico has not practiced justice toward the United States.

What shall be done about it?

There are three possible courses of action. We can go on as we have been doing for the last six or seven years, hoping that patience, reason, and time will cure the ills and contenting ourselves with dealing with each individual case as it arises.

Or we can make an effort, as we did a few years ago in what was known as the A B C Conference, to get other nations of this hemisphere to join us in establishing or helping Mexico to establish justice and law and order in that unhappy country.

Or we can adopt the policy of intervention.

There is a precedent for such a policy. In 1898 we took over Cuba, a Spanish-American country as Mexico is a Spanish-American country, established a protectorate over that island, administered its government until the people were in a condition to govern themselves, and in this way enabled them to join the family of nations as a prosperous, contented, and well-governed people.

We *can* do the same with Mexico. But the task will be far more difficult and dangerous. We intervened in Cuba to free the Cubans from what we believed, and what many of them also believed, to be an intolerable foreign yoke. If we intervene in Mexico it will be to save Mexicans from themselves. The Cubans welcomed our intervention. It is debatable whether any but a small proportion of the Mexicans would welcome it. Military intervention might mean a long and bloody war, although there can be no doubt about its final outcome. The power, skill, and intelligence of the United States would make it victorious in the end, but the process would be costly both in lives and in property. It might arouse the suspicions if not the enmity of all Latin America, whose confidence we have been honestly striving to win. Good military judges have estimated that a war of intervention in Mexico would take at least three years and an army of from 300,000 to 500,000 men. It would mean, just as our young men have emerged from the world war and are getting re-established in civil life, that many of them would have to sacrifice themselves anew.

We do not say these things because intervention should be avoided at any cost of self-respect, National honor, or justice to American citizens. Perhaps intervention is inevitable. But at any rate it should not be entered upon lightly or in

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a spirit of revenge or bravado. No man should make the decision for himself without a clear understanding of the facts and a serious appreciation of the gigantic and far-reaching nature of the task.

INDUSTRIAL BROTHERHOOD

POLITICAL democracy won its way to public acceptance in spite of irreconcilable enemies, reactionaries, and radicals, the Bourbons and the Robespierres. It is not strange, therefore, that industrial democracy finds its progress opposed by the same enemies—feudal landlords who wish to maintain industrial autocracy and radicals who wish to substitute industrial anarchy.

It is encouraging to know that there are men who are neither reactionaries nor radicals, who are neither satisfied with industrial autocracy nor desirous of industrial anarchy, and who are quietly working in life's laboratory by practical experiments toward industrial peace based on industrial righteousness. They seek not a compromise of rights, but a basis of right. Their voices are not often heard; they have no panacea to propose; they have not the fatal self-confidence of either the reactionaries or the radicals. But the hope of the world lies in what they are attempting.

Their plans are not inconsistent. They may be co-operative. Different plans may succeed in different industries. But they are all inspired by the same spirit—the spirit of industrial brotherhood. Without that spirit no plan for industrial peace can succeed. With that spirit the failure of any special plan will only point the way to a better one.

In an article on another page we give to our readers a glimpse of some of these proposals and endeavors toward industrial good will.

IT NEVER HAS WORKED YET

IN Mary Newton Stanard's "Colonial Virginia" there is to be found food for thought in the shrewd observation of some of our earliest colonials. It is a bit of mental nourishment which deserves to be brought to the attention of those who are dabbling in communistic experiments. They may be surprised to hear that communism was first tried out in America more than three hundred years ago in the first settlement made by the English upon our shores.

The author of "Colonial Virginia" tells us that "the colony had been managed from the beginning on the community plan—all sharing the work and such provisions as were at command." Of course the colonists were united by the need of overcoming the dangers of a strange land. They had every incentive in the world to stick together and labor for a common advantage. Did they? We find that the situation when Sir Thomas Dale became Governor was so critical that he "at once allotted all of the settlers private gardens in addition to public ones, and in 1613 gave each man three acres of cleared land to farm for himself and his family."

Governor Dale had good reason for doing this. In the language of the old records, we read that when the settlers "fed out of the common store and laboured jointly together, glad was he that could slip from his labour or slumber over his taske, he cared not how, nay the most honest among them would hardly take so much paines in a weeke as now themselves they will doe in a day."

There are many beautiful theories afloat in the world, and with most of them but one fault can be found. They fail to take into consideration the unimportant fact that a large percentage of the inhabitants of this earth are human beings.

THE EPISCOPAL CHURCH WAKES UP

BY THE REV. E. CLOWES CHORLEY, D.D., HISTORIOGRAPHER

BY common consent the recent Detroit General Convention was the most constructive ever held in the history of the Episcopal Church.

Bishops and clerical and lay deputies strove to put the Church in condition to meet the complex problems of a new day.

The Convention placed the Church on record in favor of the right of labor to conference and the right to choose its own representatives in conference. It declared for partnership as the principle of brotherhood and for the carrying on of industry for the benefit of the whole rather than for personal gain. It approved the adoption of a living wage to meet American standards of living; declared against the system of strikes, and urged the end alike of the exploitation of the labor of women and children, autocratic mastership and patronage in social welfare work.

The House of Bishops approved a petition to the Government for executive clemency for conscientious objectors to military service, but the House of Deputies refused its indorsement by an overwhelming majority.

An effort to obtain an unqualified indorsement of the Administration plan for the League of Nations signally failed in the House of Bishops despite a strong plea for moral leadership made by Bishop Anderson. A majority of the bishops were much opposed to the Shantung provision; Bishop Lawrence declared that he was not willing to assume the moral leadership of an immoral act. Both houses eventually adopted a resolution approving a League of Nations, but refraining from indorsement of the present plan. The feeling was strongly in favor of proper reservations.

As regards Christian Unity: In 1918 certain Congregational ministers made proposals at a meeting of the House of Bishops looking towards an approach to unity. This resulted in a series of conferences between Congregationalists and Episcopalians headed by Dr. Newman Smyth on the one hand and Dr. William T. Manning on the other. The result was the Concordat. The representatives of the Congregational churches agreed to acknowledge the position of Episcopacy in Christendom, and the Episcopal representatives agreed to acknowledge the manifest blessing of God on non-episcopal churches. For the sake of unity, the Congregational ministers agreed to submit to Episcopal ordination and at the same time continue to minister in their own churches. The conferring of such orders was to be contingent on an acceptance of Holy Scripture as the revealed Word of God and the Nicene Creed as a sufficient statement of the Christian faith. The Convention indorsed the principle of the Concordat and steps were taken so to amend the Constitution as to make possible in three years the ordination of ministers of other Protestant churches.

On the question of the remarriage by clergymen of any divorced person, a canon was proposed prohibiting the marriage of any person who has a husband or wife living from whom he or she has been divorced for any cause arising after marriage. Under the present canon law the innocent party to a divorce may be remarried after one year, provided the court records are produced for the examination of the bishop's legal adviser and the consent of the bishop is obtained, but no clergyman is compelled to officiate at such marriage. The new canon would make no distinction between the innocent and the guilty. The debate showed that, as a whole, the laymen were strongly opposed to any such provision, regarding it as a great injustice to innocent people. The canon was then defeated by a large majority in both the clerical and lay orders.

A new and larger vision of the mission of the Church was reflected in the enthusiastic adoption of the Nation-wide campaign, with its call for fifteen hundred

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additional workers and its budget of $42,000,000.

The Convention refused to permit the election of women as deputies to diocesan conventions and the General Convention, but a joint commission was appointed to consider the whole question of women's work in the Church and to plan for the creation of a National House of Churchwomen to sit side by side with the General Convention.

The modern ministry of healing was sympathetically indorsed and steps were taken to consider the safeguards which should surround the movement.

Important progress was made with the revision and enrichment of the Book of Common Prayer. The changes, which have now been finally ratified, may be used in public services. Their general tendency is both to shorten and to humanize the liturgy.

Special relief is afforded to the intelligence and conscience of worshipers in that they are no longer compelled to say the imprecatory psalms, and many exaggerated expressions of penitence are eliminated.

One of the great gains of the new book is the addition for the first time of definite prayers for the departed. Such prayers have been in common use by the authority of individual bishops, and they have been implied in certain of the collects; but now they are officially authorized. The first is for memorial days, and reads:

> O Almighty God, God of the spirits of all flesh; We give thee thanks for all those who have laid down their lives for home and country; And we commend them to thy fatherly care and protection, beseeching thee that we, with them, may have our portion in the life of the world to come; through Jesus Christ our Lord. Amen.

In the revised Burial Office, adopted by the House of Deputies, the prayers for the dead are even more definite. Two may be quoted:

> O God, whose mercies are unnumbered; Accept our prayers on behalf of the soul of thy servant departed, and grant him an entrance into the land of light and joy in the fellowship of thy saints; through Jesus Christ our Lord. Amen.
>
> Remember thy servant, O Lord, according to the favor which thou bearest unto thy people, and grant that, increasing in knowledge and love of thee, he may go from strength to strength, in the life of perfect service in thy heavenly kingdom; through Jesus Christ our Lord, who liveth and reigneth with thee and the Holy Ghost ever, one God, world without end. Amen.

The same note of intimacy is struck in the new blessing provided to be said at the grave at the close of the service:

> Unto God's gracious mercy and protection we commit you. The Lord bless you and keep you. The Lord make his face to shine upon you, and be gracious unto you. The Lord lift up his countenance upon you, and give you peace, both now and evermore. Amen.

The new book bears ample witness that nothing human is foreign to the prayers of the Church. The deeper patriotism engendered by the war finds expression in the addition of prayers for the Army and the Navy, for Independence Day, Courts of Justice, State Legislatures, and the following admirable and comprehensive prayer for our country:

> Almighty God, who hast given us this good land for our heritage; We humbly beseech thee that we may always prove ourselves a people mindful of thy favor and glad to do thy will. Bless our land with honorable industry, sound learning, and pure manners. Save us from violence, discord, and confusion; from pride and arrogancy, and from every evil way. Defend our liberties, and fashion into one united people the multitudes brought hither out of many kindreds and tongues. Endue with the spirit of wisdom those to whom in thy Name we intrust the authority of government, that there may be justice and peace at home, and that through obedience to thy law we may show forth thy praise among the nations of the earth. In the time of prosperity fill our hearts with thankfulness, and in the day of trouble suffer not our trust in thee to fail; all which we ask through Jesus Christ our Lord. Amen.

A new alternative Prayer for the President of the United States has been provided, and one which lays stress upon the office rather than on the person. It reads:

> O Lord our Governor, whose glory is in all the world; We commend this nation to thy merciful care, that being guided by thy Providence we may dwell secure in thy peace. Grant to the President of the United States, and to all in Authority, wisdom and strength to know and to do thy will. Fill them with the love of truth and righteousness; and make them ever mindful of their calling to serve this people in thy fear; through Jesus Christ our Lord, who liveth and reigneth with thee and the Holy Ghost, one God, world without end. Amen.

Other new prayers for Social Justice, for Faithfulness in the Use of this World's Goods, for All who Labor and for All Poor, Homeless, and Neglected Folk, emphasize the quickened social consciousness of our day.

YOUR COAL AND MY COAL

STAFF CORRESPONDENCE BY GREGORY MASON

COAL is not particularly attractive. Heat is. Heat is energy; heat is life. One hundred years ago wood meant heat; one hundred years from now oil may mean heat. But to-day coal means heat.

A coal strike would not have been so serious an inconvenience to our great-grandfathers as it is to us. A century ago the great majority of Americans lived within walking distance of growing timber and knew how to handle an ax. The development of industry has so complicated our civilization that to-day the great majority of Americans rely on some one else to provide them with heat. They rely on 920,000 miners—160,000 in the anthracite coal mines and 760,000 in the bituminous mines. The cessation of work by about 600,000 of these soft-coal miners becomes a calamity.

The capitalist who invests his money in a coal mine or the workingman who invests his labor in it both encounter a public interest in their project. Neither can expect to have as much freedom in the way he directs his money or his labor as the man who invests money or labor in peach-raising or the manufacture of porcelain. Coal is life.

Except for perhaps a few Americans living in some of our tropical insular possessions, there is not a citizen of this country who is not vitally affected by the strike of the soft-coal miners. This article is not written for the many thousand citizens who have invested their money in coal mines; neither is it written for the 760,000 men who work in the soft-coal mines. Consequently little space will be here given to discussing whether or not the Government has broken faith with the miners in issuing an injunction against their strike, or in discussing the immediate claims and grievances of the miners in this particular strike. Suffice it to say that breaking a coal strike by an injunction is no permanent remedy. It produces that class bitterness which will make it more difficult than ever for the country to put the coal industry on a basis of permanent efficiency and justice.

The Public to Blame

This article is written for the ninety-nine million non-coal-producing Americans who depend on coal for heat and life. These Americans ought to know that their coal is produced for them under a system full of injustice and full of inefficiency. They ought to know it all the more because they themselves are mainly responsible for this injustice and inefficiency. The public is paying now for the bad organization of the coal-mining industry, and the public ought to pay, for that bad organization is largely the public's fault.

In order that the reader may see clearly what is wrong with the coal industry, he ought first to familiarize himself with a few fundamental conditions in coal mining, and particularly with the somewhat

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peculiar industrial status of a coal miner. Roughly, only about one-quarter of the men in our soft-coal mines are wage-earners in the usual sense—that is, are paid by the day. They are drivers, loaders, etc. The other three-quarters—that is, the miners properly so called—are not employees in the usual sense at all. They are contractors. A miner owns his own tools, he buys his own explosives and his own accessories for getting out the coal. He is paid by the mine owner at so much a ton for what he produces. As laborers go, your miner is pretty independent. Moreover, with the exception of some twenty-five per cent of the miners who cannot speak English, as laborers go your miner is a pretty high type of American workingman. The I. W. W. has its adherents among the miners, but they are few and uninfluential. There is not a man leading the United Mine Workers in any of its twenty-nine districts who is not an American citizen. Every one of the National officers of the organization is American born. Acting-President John L. Lewis, who was born in Lucas, Iowa, on February 12, 1880, is as thoroughly American as you or I. William Green, Secretary-Treasurer of the Union, has been a member of the Ohio Senate and is the author of the Ohio Workingmen's Compensation Law. He was Speaker *pro tem.* of the Ohio House of Representatives and Republican leader there. Percy Tetlow, the statistician of the miners, who succeeded to this important position when Lewis was moved up to the presidency, is a Republican member of the Ohio House. There is no taint of Bolshevism here! When you deal with an American miner, three times out of four you are dealing with a good and genuine citizen who is making his living in a self-respecting way by getting out coal for the mine owners on a contract.

Miners Independent

The miner has always been an independent sort of workman. Perhaps the irregularity of his employment—which, as will be shown below, is the essential flaw in the present system of mining—has over-developed some of the independent traits in the miner. Certainly a miner is inherently disposed to regard himself as his own boss and to think himself entitled to a day off when he wants it. For instance, while the output of the bituminous mines on Monday, October 27—just five days before the strike began—was the greatest ever reached in a single day, the output of the following Saturday was the lowest of the year. The strike call was not the whole explanation. Saturday, November 1, which was All Saints' Day, would have been seized anyway by many miners as a good day for going hunting! Men grimy with coal are a familiar sight about the streets of any mining town in the early hours of the afternoon. A short day's work is the rule rather than the exception.

The investigator who goes to the coal-fields is met at first with a bombardment of statistics. The operators shower him with data proving that the slightest increase in wages must be transferred to the consumer by a rise in the price of coal. The miners ask him to remember that their cost of living is from one hundred to two hundred per cent higher than it was five years ago. And they call his attention to the fact that, while the price of coal is one hundred and twenty per cent higher than it was in 1914, in the same period wages of all mine employees have had an average increase of only forty-four per cent.

But most of these statistics prove effects, not causes. They indicate some of the effects of the general mismanagement of the mining industry. The rest of this article will be devoted to pointing out some of the fundamental faults in the system of mining.

Operators' Ignorance

In the first place, a great many mine operators literally do not know their own business. When the Government took over the administration of fuel production during the war, one of the largest bituminous mines in the country was found to be losing money, although its owners had been paying dividends for years. Many mine owners have felt that they were doing well to pay a ten per cent dividend even when they were setting aside no fund to offset the capital invested in the purchase of coal lands. As Mr. George Otis Smith, Director of the United States Geological Survey, well said, in addressing the recent mining congress at St. Louis:

"The annual reports of our largest mining corporations and the studies by the Federal Trade Commission alike fail to tell the whole story in their statement of production costs, which are made to include the wages of labor but not the wages of capital employed. The Federal Trade Commission in its definition of cost specifically excludes interest on investment; but can we do that in the world of realities? Does not the cost of a pound of copper just as truly include its share of the interest due on the bonds and the dividend due on the capital stock actually paid in—that is, wages paid to capital—as it includes the wages paid to the mine worker or the man in the smelter? Of course neither pay-roll should be padded. . . . Do not regard the definition of profit as simply an academic question for college professors to discuss; it is more a matter of fundamental concern to the men who are trying to build up the industry.

"In the first place, such terms as 'net earnings,' 'profit,' 'net income,' 'surplus,' or 'balance to surplus account,' which appear on your financial sheets, are too optimistic in tone when the operating costs do not include any charge on account of the investment. The inference is too easily drawn that this surplus is available for profit-sharing between labor and capital."

There is a great deal of waste in what is known as "slack," or coal which has been passed through a screen. Vast quantities of this are not used at all. The general productivity of our coal mines is increasing at an encouraging rate. In fact, in the past seven years we have dug one-third of the total amount of coal mined since 1806. But while the present wasteful methods are used the continually increasing rate of production merely means that we are gulping down the cream and throwing away the milk—and the supply of neither is inexhaustible.

Irregular Employment

The second fundamental fault in the present system is soon found by even a casual investigator. He encounters the ugly fact that as coal mining is conducted at present we have in this country too many coal mines and too many miners. Seasonal and yearly fluctuations in mining activity are the explanation of this. Instead of having a smaller number of men steadily employed digging coal we have a large number irregularly employed. In the present coal controversy figures showing large daily or monthly earnings by miners are rather glibly quoted. But an American family lives from year to year, not from day to day. The family budget must be a yearly budget. In a mine in the Pittsburgh district, for instance, I found a miner fifty-eight years old who had made $108 in the fortnight preceding the strike. But if I had assumed from this fact that he had made $216 every month, or the sum of $2,592 a year, I should have committed a gigantic error. His yearly earnings were really about half of this figure. Another man in that mine, a young loader, made $140 in the same fortnight. This was at the rate of $3,360 a year, or considerably more than twice what the man had actually made in the preceding year.

Illinois is a great coal-producing State. The average annual earning of the miner in Illinois from 1913 to 1918 inclusive was $864.40. In 1918, which was a banner year in coal mining, the average income was $1,390.38. Conditions in the other great coal-mining States are about the same. For instance, the average annual wage for the whole central competitive district from 1913 to 1918 inclusive was $873.85. And the average annual earning for the whole central competitive district in the banner year of 1918 was $1,463.58.

The Six-Hour Day

The demand of the miners for a six-hour day and a five-day week probably struck most of the public as outrageous on the face of it, almost grotesque. The reply of the miners, of course, was that, while they have been working theoretically on an eight-hour day, they have often worked no more than three or four days in a week. They have alleged, that is, that in asking for a six-hour day and a five-day week they actually were asking for the right to work more than they have been working. In some localities this claim of the miners is true. The fact is that throughout the soft-coal fields of the United States since the signing of

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the armistice the average number of hours worked per week on the basis of a full week of forty-eight hours has been just thirty. The United States Geological Survey has gathered other statistics equally important. For instance, during the week ending October 25, which was the week of record production in the history of American coal mining, 3,064 bituminous-coal mines in this country worked actually only 81.8 per cent of full time. "To understand just what it means to show that the mines worked to 81.8 per cent of capacity," says the report of the Geological Survey, "we may think of the 3,064 operations included as one great composite mine with a forty-eight-hour week. The hours it works and the hours it is shut down for various causes are the average of the hours worked and lost by all the mines, big and little, weighted in accordance with their size. . . . Now during the week in question—the week of best performance for the year—this composite mine worked only 81.8 of the time. That is to say, it operated thirty-nine hours and fifteen minutes out of its forty-eight-hour week. It thus underwent more than a day (eight hours and forty-five minutes) of enforced idleness, hurtful alike to the operator and to the worker. Five hours and five minutes were lost on account of car shortage; an hour and three-quarters because of labor troubles; an hour and twenty-five minutes because the mine broke down; and, finally, another half-hour on account of miscellaneous causes."

Subtracting Sundays and holidays, a good working year is considered as comprising three hundred and four days. Yet in the history of American bituminous-coal mining the greatest average number of days worked by the mines of the country was two hundred and forty-nine. That was in 1918. In the eight years between 1910 and 1918 the number of days worked ran between the record number in 1918 and one hundred and ninety-five in 1914. Now the difference between two hundred and forty-nine working days and one hundred and ninety-five working days means a great deal to the budget of a miner's family. From January 1, 1919, to November 1, when the strike began, the same number of miners had produced just one hundred million tons of coal less than they produced during the same period in 1918. So the miners and their families must live on less money this year than they lived on last year, and the cost of living has certainly not fallen.

This is the situation created by uneven production in the mines. Yet, in the long run, the public must pay a price for coal enough to support the miners and mines through the idle days as well as through the full days. Hence, since the armistice we have been paying for eighteen hours a week of mine idleness.

Cars and Storage

The principal causes of the seasonal fluctuations in productivity are car shortage and the difficulty of storing coal. A mine works only until it has filled the number of freight cars at the mine. Whoever is to blame for the inadequacy of the supply of cars, this is a condition which an intelligent Government and an intelligent public should not tolerate, as it is a condition which is certainly remediable. The difficulty of storage is a more serious one. Most coal mines are situated up in a ravine where there is little room for storage. Moreover, bituminous coal takes fire if stored carelessly in large heaps. Thus storage at the mines is at present impracticable. But storage with the consumer is perfectly practicable. The consumer can store his coal in a dry place in small lots which will not ignite. We are getting near the culprit now. The blame for the seasonal fluctuation in coal mine productivity, which is the condition more fundamentally uneconomical than any other, falls on you and on me. Harken to Secretary Lane:

"The public must accept responsibility for the coal industry. It must be realized that whatever mines and miners are necessary to meet the needs of the country, they have to be paid for the year's work. . . . We must not think of the coal industry only when our bins are empty. There must be a united effort on the part of householders and industries to distribute their fuel demands over the year."

Cheaper Spring Coal

The autumn months are the great months for coal buying and coal production, so the months when there is the greatest pressure on the railways for cars to carry coal are the very months when the railways are straining to capacity to carry the fall crops. Now spring coal buying on the part of the "household" public may be encouraged by two very simple measures. First, it may be encouraged in the soft-coal industry, as it is already encouraged in the anthracite industry. If you buy anthracite in April, you get it cheaper than if you buy it in November. Soft coal ought to be offered at a slightly lower price in the spring than in the fall. In the second place, a favorable seasonal freight rate would stimulate production of coal in the spring. Secretary Lane is only one of many experts who advocate that the railways should charge less for transporting coal in the spring than they charge in the fall, in order to stimulate spring production. These two simple measures, authorities declare, would give the coal miners much more even employment throughout the year. Such even employment would mean more profits for the operators, a better yearly wage for the miners, more even work for the railways, and last, but not least, freedom from the fear of coal famine on the part of the public.

But, it is objected, steady employment of the miners throughout the year will mean the production of more coal than this country needs. This is true. At present we have more mines and more miners than our own demands warrant. But the stimulation of the exportation of coal will remove this difficulty. Europe is crying for our coal. England is the great European coal exporter. In 1913 the British Isles exported seventy-seven million tons of the black fuel. In 1918 they exported only thirty-four million tons, and it is estimated that for the year from July, 1919, to July, 1920, they will be able to export only twenty-three million tons. There is ample market in Europe to absorb the surplus of coal remaining above what we need ourselves even if the seven hundred and sixty thousand bituminous miners whom we now have were given a steady and full working year. The present obstacle in the way of exporting enough coal to take up the surplus is the lack of ships, but a people that solved the difficulty of sending two million men and their supplies across the seas ought not to be "stumped" by the lesser difficulty of putting the coal industry on a scientific and efficient basis.

Railways at Fault

It is true, as just stated, that public indifference has permitted the bituminous industry to drift into its present mismanaged and inefficient condition. But, while sinning, the consuming public has also been sinned against. The chief offenders against the public have been the railways. Up to the time the Government took over the administration of fuel during the war the railways had been able virtually to dictate the price at which the mines sold them coal. Railway and coal mining are inextricably entangled industries. The railways are the largest single customers of the coal mines, buying about thirty per cent of all coal mined, and about thirty-five per cent of all railway freight is coal. Before the war a big railway would go to a big mine and offer a price for a large order of coal considerably below the cost of production. The coal mine dared not refuse to fill the order; first, because to refuse meant to lose permanently the railway's patronage to another mine, and, second, because through the threat of withholding freight cars the railway had a tremendous club for the subjection of any mine owner to its wishes. What did the mine generally do, then? It generally accepted the order of the railway at the inadequate price and charged the public enough extra to make its ultimate profit. In other words, for years before the Government took over the administration of coal mines and railways you and I, the consuming public, were partly paying for the railways' coal. We were bearing the whole "burden of profit," which should have been shared with us by the railways. And even after the Government began its war-time control of mines and railways there were Government officials in the Railroad Administration who would have had the public continue to bear this "burden of profit," and only because the President backed up the Coal Administration against the Railroad Administration in the just claim of the former that the railways should be made to pay the same price for coal which other consumers paid was the virtual robbing

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of the public by the railways stopped during the war.

The Government and Industry

Now the war is actually over; soon it will formally be declared at an end. The Government is already loosening its control of the mines; it proposes soon to relinquish its control altogether, and also to give up its firm supervision of the railways. Is this desirable? Is it desirable that these two great industries so essential to the welfare of the whole people should be allowed to run along in the old-fashioned haphazard manner, free from adequate Government supervision? More and more we Americans are becoming an industrial people. The greatest questions of the hour are the industrial questions. Every indication is that the greatest issues of the next Presidential campaign will be industrial issues. More and more wise men are coming to believe it essential to the welfare of the Nation that the Government get closer to the industries of the country. Several plans to accomplish this have been suggested. Fuel Administrator Garfield has suggested the formation of an industrial cabinet to cover the six great fundamental industries concerned with food, clothing, fuel, building, land transportation, and water transportation. He would have the members of this cabinet possessed of seats in Congress, where they could place at the immediate disposal of the lawmaking body of the Nation the information which would be available to them through their intimate contact with both capitalists and laborers in the great industries of the land.

The exact details of the machinery to keep the Government and, through the Government, the people in healthy contact with industry may be worked out by experts. The great fact which confronts us to-day is that some sort of machinery is essential. Disorganization and waste in the coal industry have developed because the growth of the principles and methods directing the industry have not kept pace with the physical development of coal mining itself. Some men who have invested money in coal mines may not like this suggestion that their responsibility to the public that buys the coal be increased. Some men who invest labor in coal mining may protest that the direction of the industry is something to be worked out between them and the operators. Any miners and any operators who contend this are wrong. They will have to stand aside. The coal resources of this country do not belong to them alone. In the last analysis it is your coal and my coal, and in the last analysis the responsibility of getting it out of the earth without waste and for using it economically is yours and mine.

EXPERIMENTS IN INDUSTRIAL GOOD WILL

THE only way to industrial peace is through good will. But of itself good will is not enough. All the good will in the world will not bring peace unless it is translated into deeds. To bring peace good will must be organized. One reason for believing that the present state of industrial unrest, amounting in some cases to industrial war, can be supplanted by orderly processes of justice is to be found in the fact that there are many experiments under way for putting good will into practice.

These plans all depend upon the willingness of capitalists and those who manage to understand the point of view of those who work with their hands, as well as the willingness of those who work with their hands to understand the problems of the capitalist and the manager.

That there are signs of a great change in this respect is plain to be seen. The old attitude that the employer is the only one who has any right to control the management, that the business is his business and nobody has a right to interfere with it, is rapidly disappearing. In its place is coming the recognition that those who furnish labor to an industry have rights corresponding to the rights of those who furnish capital; that they have a stake in that industry, and are therefore entitled to a voice in saying how it shall be carried on.

It is natural to find expressions of this right coming from labor organizations; but it may be surprising to a good many people to know that expressions acknowledging this right have come, not only from sources not distinctively associated with labor, but from capitalists.

John D. Rockefeller, Jr., introduced into the Labor Conference at Washington a resolution in which it was resolved "that this Conference recognizes and approves the principle of representation in industry under which the employees shall have an effective voice in determining their terms of employment and their working and living conditions."

The declaration of labor principles by the National Association of Manufacturers, in which it was declared that an employer must be unmolested in the management of *his* business, does not express the position of progressives among managers or representatives of the interests of investors. This is made clear, not merely by the words of capitalists and managers, but by practices to which we shall later refer.

PRINCIPLES AND THEORIES SUGGESTED

A great many plans and schemes have been proposed for the settlement or prevention of industrial conflicts.

Dr. Eliot's Plan. Among theoretical schemes of distinction is a plan advocated by Dr. Charles W. Eliot, President Emeritus of Harvard University. This plan involves, on the part of employers, the abandonment of every form of despotic or autocratic government in industries which deal with the necessaries of modern life; the universal adoption of co-operative management and discipline, the employer and workman having equal representation on managing committees; the adoption in industries of means of promoting the health and vigor of the employees and their families, with the continuing of education for adults; provision for dealing promptly and justly with complaints, in which foremen may be witnesses but never judges; the use of well-trained employment managers; the adoption of a partnership system for equal distribution of profits between capital and labor, with representatives of employees in the directorate; the diminution of monotony and the increase of variety in occupation; the universal acceptance of collective bargaining; and, on the part of employees, the abandonment of the doctrine of limited output; the abandonment of the idea that it is desirable for workers of any sort to work as few hours in the day as possible; rejection of the notion that leisure rather than steady work should be the main object of life; the selection of occupation with regard to the chance in it for interest and instructiveness and consequent satisfaction; abandonment of the idea that capital is the natural enemy of labor and that unorganized laborers are traitors to their class; abandonment of all violence toward property and persons in industrial disputes; and, on the part of both parties to industrial strife, willing adoption of the methods of conciliation, arbitration, and ultimate decision by a National Government Board; recognition that a new and formidable danger threatens civilization in anarchy and violent Socialism; general acceptance of the view that American liberties are to be preserved as they have been won by personal independence, industry, thrift, truthfulness, respect for law and family life, and a readiness to fight in the defense of these things; and acceptance of the truth that

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democracy is not a dead level but the free cultivation of infinitely diversified human gifts and capacities.

This is not so much a plan as a set of principles.

The Newspaper Enterprise Association's Plan. A definite plan has been proposed through the instrumentality and with the approval and backing of the Newspaper Enterprise Association. It involves the establishment of a Court of Industry composed of seven members, one to be named by the President, one by the Senate, one by the House of Representatives, and four by the American public in a Nation-wide election. The plan is to have the Court function only in disputes arising in an inter-State basic industry. In case of such a dispute, either side might appeal to the Court. The plan is to strip the Court of legal formalities and to have the arguments presented by the men on each side themselves rather than by lawyers; decisions to be reached, not by long considerations, as a court reaches them, but promptly, as a jury reaches a verdict. In case one of the contending parties should dissent from the decision, it could appeal to a referendum of the whole people. In making the appeal the dissenting party would risk a compromise decision by the Court and subject itself to the chance of getting only the minimum concession of the other side. No decision of the Court or of the people should be legally binding except as it was accepted by the parties involved; but such a decision would represent the National sentiment so thoroughly that it is believed by the advocates of the plan that neither side could practically disregard it.

The Industrial Peace League Plan. Another plan proposed, in this case by a group in the American Federation of Labor, is that of a supreme council similar to that created for the League of Nations, with a covenant and treaty between capital and labor. This plan frankly recognizes the present situation as one of war, and proposes a League of Industrial Peace, to be established after an armistice.

PLANS NOW IN ACTUAL OPERATION

Such plans are significant, not so much for the definite features of their programmes, as because of the great body of thoughts out of which they grow. It is evident that people of all kinds—capitalists, laborers, publicists, private citizens—are thinking about the present condition of industrial war and devising or adopting plans to secure some form of industrial justice and peace.

More valuable than any theoretical schemes, however, are such plans as have worked or have been actually attempted. These vary widely. Roughly, they may be divided into three classes.

One set of plans attempts to provide for amicable and intelligent negotiation. This involves only the two parties between whom there is or may be an issue.

Another set of plans undertakes to provide for intelligent and prompt arbitration. This of course involves a third party, the party acting in conjunction with or independently of the two parties to the dispute.

The third set of plans undertakes to provide for such relations between employer and employed that acute disputes will not arise and that such questions as do arise will be settled on the basis of partnership and common interest rather than on the basis of the adjustment of antagonistic interests.

Plans for Negotiation

The first set of plans prevents disputes, but they have generally been introduced in order to settle disputes which have already arisen.

The Whitley Plan. Of the first set of plans by all odds the most important is the one which has gained great ascendence in England, known as the Whitley Plan. According to this, each industry is organized into a National Joint Council, District Joint Councils, and Works Committees. The National Council is composed in equal numbers of representatives of employers and representatives of employees. The industry is divided into districts and each district has a District Joint Council composed, like the National Council, of employers' and employees' representatives in equal number. Each shop or factory or works has what is known as a Works Committee, composed both of employers and employees, but not necessarily in equal numbers, because any decision in these works must be arrived at by agreement between the two parties. Under this scheme, local difficulties are settled within the works themselves by the Works Committees, but disputes involving a larger location come under the jurisdiction of the District Council; whereas if any question arises involving employers and employees on a national scale it is settled in the National Joint Council. These councils do not interfere with trade unions, inasmuch as the representatives of the workers are chosen only from their particular union; and, in fact, the organization of employees into unions is a necessary preliminary to the Whitley Plan as it is operated in England.

The Colorado Plan. Somewhat similar to the Whitley plan is the one which is used by the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company. According to this, representatives are chosen by secret ballot of the employees from their fellow-workers—one for every one hundred and fifty employees, but never less than two in any one camp or mill division. These representatives meet three times a year in the several districts with officers of the company. Besides these there are standing committees in each division district, composed of three officers of the company and three employees selected by the employees' representatives. These committees deal with co-operation and conciliation, safety and accidents, sanitation, health and housing, and recreation and education, respectively. The employees have a recognized right of appeal, which representatives can take to the pit boss, the mine foreman, or mine superintendent, and they may carry it on up to the president's industrial representative, the district committee, the district manager, and to the president himself, and finally to the Industrial Commission of the State. This very right of appeal, it is said, prevents arbitrariness in petty officials. The plan includes also an employees' bill of rights involving—

> The right to caution and suspension before discharge, except for specific serious offenses; the right to hold meetings at appropriate places outside of working hours; the right, without discrimination, to membership or non-membership in any organization; and the above-mentioned right of appeal.

In our judgment, this plan has worked well, although it has not altogether weathered the present storm of the coal-miners' strike. It differs from the Whitley Plan in at least this respect—that representatives are chosen from both members and non-members of unions.

Both the Whitley and the Colorado Plans contemplate something more than a negotiation of disputes, although each of them involves plans for negotiation because they have risen out of the necessity for settling disputes.

Plans for Arbitration

Plans for arbitration are familiar and need not be recounted at length here. There are many such which have been working with more or less success, including, for instance, the Wage Commissions established in Massachusetts and other States, the so-called protocol in the garment-workers' strike in New York, and the like. The scheme devised by the Newspaper Enterprise Association is of this character on a National scale. So far the most ambitious arbitration plans on this continent have been devised and put into form in Canada. The limitation of these plans lies particularly in the fact that they come into operation only when the good will of both sides of a dispute is exhausted. They are therefore plans for restraining war measures in industry rather than for organizing good will, though in practice they often promote good will, or at least the spirit of compromise and mutual consideration.

Plans for Reconciliation

The third set of plans is not designed primarily either to organize the processes of negotiation or to provide for methods

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of arbitration, but to get at the root of the discontent out of which industrial disputes calling for negotiation or arbitration arise.

These plans are of great variety and differ according as opinions differ concerning the root of discontent. Some students of the subject declare that what labor wants is a direct voice in the management of industry. Others say that labor cares nothing for a voice in the management in itself, but wants better wages and better conditions of labor. Still others declare that what causes discontent is neither physical conditions nor ambition for a voice in the management, but a sense of injustice and suppression which may not be alleviated by better wages nor by admission to the boards of directors. The truth probably is that discontent has a variety of causes, and measures for the establishment of good will must vary according to the circumstances.

Some of those plans provide also for methods of negotiation, but their distinctive feature is that they attempt to deal with the root of the difficulty, and only incidentally with the specific problem of negotiation or arbitration.

The Stotesbury-Mitten Plan. One of the most striking examples of this kind of plan has been that of the Philadelphia Rapid Transit Company under the Stotesbury-Mitten management. The occasion for instituting this plan was not primarily a strike, but the general condition of the company. There was a general loss of confidence in the Philadelphia Rapid Transit Company on the part of employees, stockholders, and the public. Earnings had been insufficient to pay operating costs, rentals, and interest. The rolling stock was of an old type. Accidents were common. Wages were not adequate and working conditions were poor. The new management instituted what they called the plan for collective bargaining and co-operative welfare. Under this plan, branch committees, department committees, general committees, and a board of arbitration were established. Committeemen were elected by the employees according to branches and departments. Representatives of the company management were placed upon each committee by appointment. Increased compensation was promised as a result of the plan, and promises were more than made good. Instead of raising wages from twenty-two cents an hour to twenty-five cents an hour in four years, a man actually received an increase which brought up wages to thirty-one cents an hour at the close of a five-year period, 1916, and this was further increased, July 15, 1918, to forty-three cents per hour. More recently still there was a rise to forty-eight cents per hour. By means of the committees, grievances and questions concerning wages and conditions of labor were adjusted. Further provision was made for arbitration. In addition, a co-operative welfare association was organized which provides for benefits such as life insurance, sick benefits, and pensions. The result of this plan was shown in dividends to the stockholders and better service. During the operation of the plan there were two attempts to institute a strike, but both proved to be abortive.

The Leitch Plan. Another experiment, directed toward the root of the difficulty and known as the Leitch Plan, has been tried in several factories. It has already been described in The Outlook. It is enough to say that it is modeled upon the Government of the United States. The executive officers of the company in which it is tried correspond with the executive departments of the Government. There is a Senate consisting of selected officials and foremen and a House of Representatives consisting of men chosen by ballot from and among the employees. Questions of wages are left to be determined by the legislative bodies, but the men know that wages cannot be paid unless there is a fund from which they can be paid, and they are therefore entitled to know the financial conditions of the company. The employees, according to this plan, administer discipline. Although there has lately been a strike in one company organized according to this plan, it is said that the reason for the strike is that the employees are largely foreigners and have not really had an opportunity to become imbued with the spirit of the undertaking.

There are many forms of Shop Councils, of which the Colorado plan, the Whitley plan, and the Leitch plan are varieties. Some of them consist of simple shop committees; some of them are elaborate organizations. To describe them all is out of the question here. Some account of them has been prepared in a pamphlet of 135 pages, and published by the National Industrial Conference Board, of Boston, under the title "Works Councils in the United States." A somewhat more detailed but less comprehensive account has been published by the New Jersey State Chamber of Commerce, Newark, New Jersey, in its monthly publication "New Jersey," vol. vi, No. 10, in two sections.

The Endicott-Johnson Shoe Company's Policy. What is not so much a plan or system or scheme as a policy, is the experiment, if such it can be called, that is in operation in the Endicott-Johnson shoe manufacturing concern in Binghamton, New York. It might be called a projection of a personality or a group of personalities upon an industrial organization. The men who are in control of that company are not opposed to organized labor, but they are convinced that there is no occasion for a union of workmen in their plant. Their judgment in this respect has been confirmed by an organizer of the United Leather Workers' National Union who visited the factory and decided that he could use his time to better advantage in organizing men where they needed organization rather than there. There are no shop councils, there is no development of the principle of collective bargaining. There are, in fact, none of the ordinary signs of modern industrial organization on the part of the workers.

In place of these forms of organization there is something better, namely, what those organizations were created to obtain. In most factories the work is so arranged as to be monotonous, uninteresting, deadening. In this factory the work is so arranged that the workers have some conception of what they are doing and why they are doing it. There is preserved here somehow the spirit of the old-time artisan. "Our only plan," said Mr. George F. Johnson, one of the officers of the company, in an interview in the New York "Times," "is to try to get the point of view of the man affected by any decision we are making."

He added: "This business is being run, with one exception, by people who worked at the bench. It was built by shoemakers and tanners. For that reason it should be possible for us to see things as the workingman sees them." In the ordinary sense, there is no welfare work there. But the company as a business proposition built houses for the workers which have been described as both dignified and spacious. The employees of the company are a community, and the company has developed the things that make for community interest. For example, it is reported that of the twenty-five hundred children of the factories only eight are suffering from malnutrition. The significance of this may be realized when it is reported that one-fifth of all of the school-children of the United States as a whole are handicapped by underfeeding. Athletics of all kinds form a part of the factory policy. As Mr. George W. Johnson, son of one of the founders, has said: "These things produce a fine race. The coming generation is marvelous from the physical point of view, and they make good workers. It is right that these things should be provided. But don't forget, it pays, it pays." In brief, the company, to use again the words of Mr. George F. Johnson, "has tried to do as much as the men could in reason ask them even though they had a union organized to enforce their demands."

In the present industrial situation there is much to cause grave apprehension. But such incidents as these we have cited are sufficient to prove that the dream of industrial justice attained without violence can come true and that good will harnessed to common sense and energy can be translated from theory into practice.

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COMMUNITY CIVICS

A PRACTICAL EDUCATIONAL COURSE IN CITIZENSHIP

V—THE CARE OF THE CITY'S WARDS

THE DEPARTMENT OF CORRECTION

BY A. EVERETT PETERSON, PH.D.

OF THE EVANDER CHILDS HIGH SCHOOL, NEW YORK CITY. AUTHOR OF "NEW YORK CITY AS AN EIGHTEENTH CENTURY MUNICIPALITY," EDITOR "MINUTES OF THE COMMON COUNCIL OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK, 1784-1831"

INTRODUCTION

The Mother's Story: "I don't know what the matter is. He likes you, and for that reason I have come to you for advice. His father leaves everything to me until the boy breaks a rule. Then a frightful disruption occurs in which the boy is brutally beaten. To avoid these scenes I have shielded the boy by helping him cover up his misdeeds. This last escapade, however, is more than I can bear alone. He is beyond my control, yet I dare not tell his father. Won't you talk with the boy and his father separately, and come to dinner with us next Tuesday?"

What the Boy said: "Mother is a fine woman, but she does not understand boys. All she thinks about is the goody-goody stuff. I never know where I am at. Mother tries to make me into an angel because father throws a fit every time anything happens. Dad, apparently, never had any fun when he was a boy. He has a terrible temper, and seems to think that if he beats me up once a month and furnishes food and clothes he is giving me better advantages than the average boy gets. No, I don't want to go back to school. The teachers are all down on me. I'm not going to try to stand up to it much longer. The next time he tells me to get out, I'm going."

The Father said: "My wife is the cause of all this trouble. For sixteen years I have been telling her what would eventually happen—and here we are. I am a busy man. I leave the house early in the morning and return late in the evening. If I have a few minutes at night for reading, I am fortunate. I consider it my function to provide funds. The mother should look after the home. I have repeatedly given directions concerning the conduct of this boy since his birth. They are always disregarded. The only way I can impress him is through his skin. He does seem to be physically afraid of me. Yes, I knocked him down last Monday, and I'm going to do it every time he fails to follow my orders."

The atmosphere which prevailed during the meal was tense. After dinner the father and the guest puffed their cigars mechanically while mother and son bravely attempted to entertain on piano and mandolin until the young man finally announced that it was his bedtime and went up the stairs.

With the weeping mother on one side of him and the temperamental father on the other, the three proceeded to attempt to analyze the situation. At the end of one hour father was still obdurate and mother was tearfully anxious to do anything to save the boy. Two hours, three hours passed. The impossible practices of many years were well rooted and not easy to face. At three o'clock in the morning a point was reached where each parent inclined slightly toward the view-point of the other, and the conference closed.

In a few hours the mediator appeared before the Grand Jury and pleaded for the boy, who was immediately paroled in his custody. A new procedure for the conduct of this boy's life was adopted whereby—but that's the beginning of another story.

In addressing a parents' association last week, the speaker said in closing: "I still maintain for the *n*th time that, if we as parents, teachers, and children were thoroughly, honestly, and unselfishly cooperative within the home and the school, the larger communities—the city, the State, and the Nation—would have more vacant space in their corrective institutions."

FRANK A. REXFORD.

AT the foot of Twenty-sixth Street, East River, is a building bearing the sign "Department of Correction." Here every morning at ten o'clock the boat Correction starts for the three islands on which certain institutions of the department are situated. Visitors carrying the necessary pass take this means of getting to the prisoners, while provisions and supplies form the cargo.

It is but a short trip up the river to the nearest institution on Blackwell's Island,[1] the "Reception and Classification Hospital for Men," as the present commissioner, Dr. James A. Hamilton, chooses to call the building formerly known as the Penitentiary. All men after sentence by the courts are taken here. They were formerly shipped across the river, but are now literally dropped to the island, an elevator at Queensboro Bridge serving as the means of descent. When the prisoner arrives, his individual record is registered, including data as to parentage, residence, occupation, nature of indictment, and finger prints. Physical and mental examinations are given. Bathed and freshly clothed, he is then assigned to the especial institution which he is to occupy. A provision of the new city charter of 1897 called for the ultimate use of Blackwell's Island as the home of the city's sick and poor, which explains the location elsewhere at present of the major part of the city's corrective institutions.

The male convicts are rather widely distributed. First offenders are sent to New Hampton, in Orange County, about seventy-five miles from town. Every week or ten days there are enough of these cases to fill a special car, which is attached to a train on the Erie road. Recidivists (those who have been sentenced before) and others less hopeful of reform are conveyed to Hart's Island, where tubercular cases also are segregated. Drug addicts are assigned to Riker's Island. The medical cases stay at the Classification Building in splendidly equipped hospitals, which are in strong contrast to the older portion of the building, where most of the inmates are housed. Four tiers of cells, each tier consisting of two rows placed back to back, rise one above the other in the center of the dormitory, light and air for which are admitted through many windows in the outside walls. As a considerable space intervenes between external walls and the grated cell doors facing them, the interior of the cells seems dark and gloomy.

A warning whistle from the boat hurried visitors away from this building, and after a few minutes aboard we landed at the pier near the "Reception and Classification Hospital for Women," which was formerly known as the Workhouse. The steps taken in the reception of the men prisoners are here repeated, but the various classification groups are segregated within the one building instead of being scattered among several institutions. This necessarily calls for separate mess groups. The housing quarters here are in marked contrast to those of the penitentiary.[1] A central rectangular corridor separates four tiers of cells. An outside window in each furnishes much better light.

All the women who are physically able are employed eight hours a day on work

[1] Blackwell's Island was purchased by the city in 1828 and a penitentiary erected forthwith.

[1] Both buildings were erected before the Civil War.

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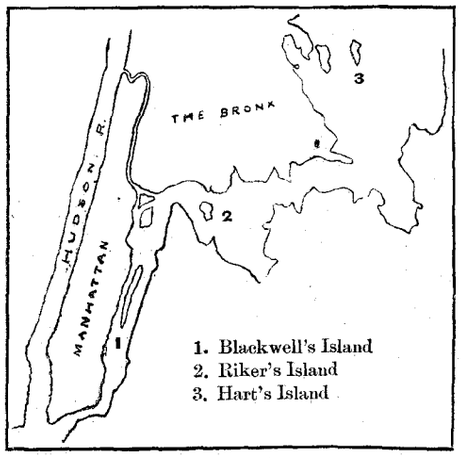
for which they are best adapted or which will give them training for service when released. They do the laundry work for all the institutions on the island. The sewing-room, garden, and hothouses are other scenes of their labors, while some are even used as stenographers.

Again heeding the warning whistle, we re-embarked, and after passing through Hell Gate into the Sound headed for Riker's Island, which for many years has



NEW YORK'S ISLAND INSTITUTIONS

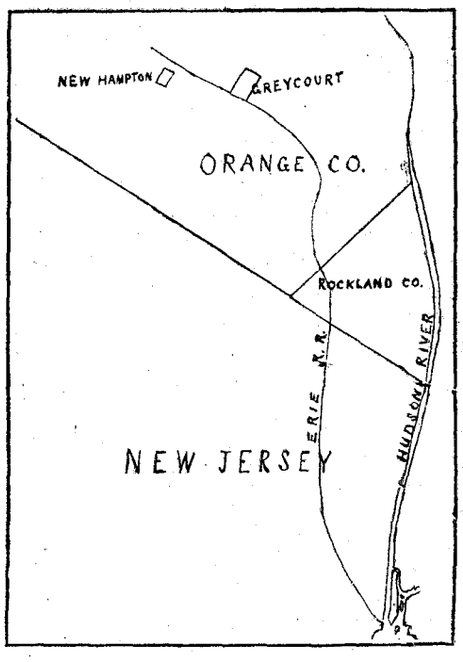
been the city's dumping ground, resulting in a consequent increased area of considerable dimensions. The institution here is comparatively small and is occupied by drug addicts. Much attention is being given to the treatment of these cases, and Commissioner Hamilton is most hopeful that their maladies may be overcome and the men saved to useful lives. But what an unnecessary amount of suffering to themselves and expense to the city these people represent! The condition of some of them is certainly a warning against ever touching the dope which clutches and seizes its victim until he becomes powerless in its grasp. While the keepers are using every means in their power to help these patients break away from the bondage into which they have fallen, well-meaning but ill-advised friends have been known, by secretly handing them drug or hypodermic syringe, to undo in a minute the work of a long, hard struggle, so that now these cases are allowed to talk with their friends only through a double screen. For this class as well as for others a regular working day of eight hours shows marked remedial effects. The work here is almost entirely agricultural. When the men are cured, they are sent back to the Classification Hospital and assigned either to Hart's Island or the New Hampton Reformatory.

From Riker's we started for a sail of an hour and a half to Hart's, which is still within the city limits, with City Island in the immediate vicinity. The industrial activities here form the most interesting feature. There is a well-equipped shoe shop, tailor shop with machines for weaving, paint shop, and printing establishment. Products of these shops are used by the inmates of all the institutions of the Department and are sold to other city departments. The receipts of these sales in 1915 amounted to $138,468.41. A number of convicts are employed in mason work, building a substantial sea wall. During the season many are employed in farming. About six hundred bushels of potatoes were raised here in the summer of 1919. An ice plant manufactures ice for the entire Department; also during the past summer twelve tons a day were supplied for charity work in the Bronx. When the prisoners were consulted as to their willingness to run the plant with three daily shifts in order to help save the Bronx babies, their immediate response indicated not only a willingness but an eagerness to aid. As previously noted, the tubercular convicts have separate quarters here, which, by the way, are altogether too popular. Various attempts have been made to fake the disease in order to escape work and get the better "grub." It may be said in passing that regular mess food is no longer a bread and water or stinted diet, but consists of wholesome, nourishing, and plentiful food. The island has its own hospital building, and on the most remote part is the home for the old and infirm. On the return trip ice from the plant on Hart's was distributed to the various institutions and our starting-point regained between five and six o'clock.

Even at the close of the day thus spent the most important institution of the Department had not been seen. So on the second day we speeded off in a motor car for a three hours' ride through northern Jersey, the Ramapo Hills, and Tuxedo Park, into Orange County, where is located the institution known as the City Reformatory. May not a big hint of the work of the Department be sensed in this very name *Reformatory*, an eternal attempt to reform a character so that the substitution of good health, good habits, and truer ideals may eradicate disease, bad habits, and evil tendencies? As the personnel of the establishment consists of first offenders or some special cases, the larger number of inmates are below thirty years of age, ranging from sixteen up. The institution is comparatively new. Over six hundred acres of land were purchased by New York City in 1913. Temporary buildings were first used in 1916,[1] the first of the permanent buildings having been completed only recently. These temporary quarters resemble those in which the Government housed its sailors at Pelham Bay Park, even to the inclosing wire fence.

The construction of buildings calls for much excavation, and nearly all inmates are started on excavation work, progressing from this into more desirable occupations. For good behavior and efficient service they receive credits in accordance with a regular credit system, and an acquisition of credits helps towards an early discharge. The power of discharge, by the way, is vested in a Parole Commission, consisting of three salaried members appointed by the Mayor, together with the Commissioner of Correction and the Police Commissioner, *ex officio*. Commitment of prisoners is made on an indeterminate sentence which names a maximum term of imprisonment, but gives to the convict an incentive to earn for himself an earlier parole or discharge. As Maconochie, one of the old prison reformers, put it, "When a man keeps the key of his own prison, he is soon persuaded to fit it to the lock." In addition to deciding as to the actual term of imprisonment, the Parole Commission, through its staff of officers, aids in finding employment for the discharged prisoners, watches their progress, and may retake or reimprison them if necessary.

Just as our tour of inspection was starting, the music of a band drew our attention to a procession of the convicts marching to the ball grounds for a game with a visiting team. During the afternoon the noise and cheers from that direction testified to their enthusiasm and served to strengthen the growing impression that the whole institution savors of the wholesomeness of a high type of community life, of work and play and study and religious influence. Of necessity the men are there under compulsion, but each has a big chance to get up from his fall and to make a fresh start with an added equipment of knowledge and experience which



LOCATION OF THE CITY REFORMATORY IN ORANGE COUNTY

should go a long way for success when he again takes a place "on the outside."

As is to be expected, the new administration building, now nearly ready for occupancy, shows many improvements over the older buildings on the islands. It contains offices, also medical and surgical rooms, which are well lighted and ventilated, while the quarters provided for the inmates would never be called cells, resembling more nearly rooms in a college dormitory, even to the luxury of rugs on the floor and bureaus with looking-glass. In this building are to be

[1] See The Outlook, April 19, 1916, "Removing an Entire Reformatory," by O. F. Lewis.

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housed two classes of inmates—those whose meritorious conduct and successful industry may thus be rewarded, and those who, because of helplessness or imbecility, need special oversight.

For the other convicts cubical dormitories are being built, cubical because of the room measurements, $8 \times 8 \times 8$ feet. A central corridor runs one way through the building, separating the two rows of

CONVICTS CULTIVATING A POTATO FIELD AT NEW HAMPTON REFORMATORY
The new administration building may be seen in the background at the left

cells. A door from each cell opens upon this corridor, and the side of each compartment opposite the door is a substantial screen extending from the top to a height of about three feet from the floor. As this open side faces an external wall which contains many windows, much light and air enter the cells, even though a space intervenes between them and the outside wall. About 150 inmates are housed in each dormitory.

A central heating plant supplies heat to the various buildings. In process of construction are a storehouse and a root cellar for the storage of provisions and perishable winter supplies; a temporary cannery during the past summer has conserved much food that would otherwise have been wasted. Water for the various buildings is being piped from a reservoir on the hill.

While some of the inmates are busy upon these activities, many others are engaged in agricultural pursuits on the rich meadow lands along the river. An extensive piggery is maintained, and at present a neighboring farm is rented for a dairy. Products are sufficient to supply the other branches of the Department as well as the Reformatory; truck-loads of potatoes, carrots, turnips, onions, apples, cabbages, corn, pork, tomatoes, etc., start almost daily for the use of the island institutions.[1]

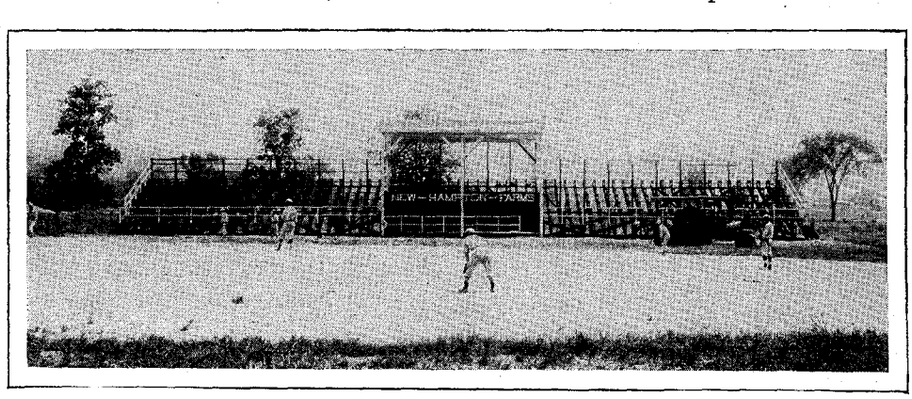
The absence of a walled inclosure is unusual and is in keeping with the honor system in vogue. Attempts at escape are sometimes made, but seldom successfully. Here, as elsewhere, a day of honest work is insisted upon. An evening school is maintained; moving pictures are shown two evenings a week in the assembly hall, where also religious services are held on Sunday. The institution has its own band, and band concerts and community singing are enjoyed. A library supplies books. Every effort, indeed, is made to have the life as normal and as helpful to the individual as possible.

Within short distances from New Hampton other properties are owned by New York City at Greycourt and Warwick. The former will in 1920 be opened as a companion reformatory for women; the latter was originally intended as a special place for inebriates, but no such use is at present designed. The land there is cultivated as an adjunct to the New Hampton agricultural plant.

Of minor consideration are the various district prisons in the city boroughs, connected with the magistrates' courts and used largely for necessary detention of prisoners awaiting trial or who are serving sentences for a few days. There are three city prisons; the "Tombs" in Manhattan, one in Brooklyn, and one in Queens. Prisoners for trial in higher courts are held here. In these, as well as in the district prisons, all the cleaning is done by convicts.

As is the case in various other city departments, the Department of Correction is under the control of a commissioner appointed by the Mayor, while administrative details are divided among several bureaus. The enthusiastic interest of Commissioner Hamilton in his work, his broad-minded policy and executive ability, speak well for the present administration of the Department. The consideration of the possibility of a change at the end of four years with the necessary readjustments, a possible overturn of progressive policies, a loss to the Department of practical knowledge which only experience can give—all these tend to raise the recurrent question of the wisdom of the present manner of appointing heads of departments. The various executives of the institutions are civil service appointees, but the central intelligence which guides the system may be shifted with the changing fortunes of political parties.

Paradoxically, our next trip, while shorter in distance, covers much more time. The Municipal Building and Hall of Records are the objectives. Here are to be found old vellum-covered volumes and filed papers which carry us back through the years to the small beginnings from which the largest city in the world has sprung. These records tell us that for many years certain rooms of the Dutch *Stadt Huys* and the English City Hall served as prisons. Then, as now, the keeper of the jail was "bound to note down when the prisoners are brought into the public gaol and the name and surname and also when they are discharged, and what cloaths, money, goods, they brought with them into the prison." He must separate the convicts as much as possible and "arrange them according to their offences and persons, especially the women from the men." Sometimes a bread and water diet was ordered, and "this decree he must rigidly enforce;" otherwise, a weekly ration of certain foodstuffs must be followed, three pounds of beef and a pound and a half of pork being considered enough meat for one person, who might also have a daily can of beer in winter or two cans in summer. Some attention to sanitation is evidenced in the order to "inspect and clean the prison every week, so that no stench may arise." That the apartment consisted of a common chamber and cells is evidenced in an order regarding heat and light, neither of which was allowed in the cells, but a prisoner sitting in the prison chamber was allowed a candle every two days, which might be burned until eight o'clock



BASEBALL FIELD AT NEW HAMPTON REFORMATORY
This was reproduced in another connection in The Outlook of April 19, 1916

[1] In all about 3,400 convicts have to be maintained by the Department. Of this number about 500 are women. There are also 750 employees to be fed.

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winter nights and nine o'clock summer nights. In great measure the jailer's compensation depended upon the number of prisoners, for he was allowed a certain stipend per day for keeping a man under lock and key and providing his meals.

The court sentences do not indicate that imprisonment was then the generally employed treatment that it now is. They disclose, indeed, novel ways of dealing with the offender. Mesaack Martens of Dutch days stole cabbages and was sentenced "to stand in the pillory with cabbages on his head." In 1677 Michael Hastings entered a house and stole sheets from the beds, and as a part of his punishment was to be "carryed from prison to the Whipping post and there stand halfe an houre with the sheets about his neck." Andrew Ball, for "taking a false Oath before the Governor," was imprisoned for a time and then brought to the whipping post before the City Hall and compelled to stand there "with a Paper pinned on his breast mentioning his crime for the Space of one whole hower." Such unique treatment resulted from a court custom of sometimes calling upon its members to advise regarding the sentence to be administered. Many and varied were the suggestions given. For stealing a brass kettle worth tenpence in 1719 Betty and Frank were sentenced to be "stripped from the waste upwards and tyed to a Cart and whipped upon the Naked back each forty lashes save one (that is to say) at the City Hall, five Lashes, at the Corner of Wall Street, five Lashes, at Burgers path, five Lashes, at the Corner of Vincent, five Lashes, at the corner of Broadway by Mr. Richards, five Lashes, at the Corner of the Broadway by the English Church, five Lashes, at the Corner of Beaver Street, five Lashes, and at their Return to the city Hall, four Lashes, after which the said Betty and Frank to be discharged paying their fees."

During the Negro conspiracy of 1741 the victims were condemned to be burned at the stake, hung in chains, and to other gruesome penalties associated with the punishment of heretics in mediæval Europe. All these punishments had for their object the prevention of crime by inspiring fear as to consequences—fear of ridicule, of pain, etc.—a notion of discipline as old as the world itself, but which in the present age seems almost entirely abandoned.

A system of fines is found to have been very prevalent in colonial New York. As a common arrangement was to divide equally the amount of the fine among the informer, the magistrate, and the court, the officer usually recommended a sizable fee, which the Court would conscientiously reduce.

In 1671, when we read that John McEvers was compelled to pay a fine of five pounds to Richard Johnson for "striking off the top of the fourth finger of the right hand," we note a penalty that traces back very directly to the time of King Alfred of England. His Saxon code fixed a very definite compensation for the loss of various bodily members; a thumb struck off, thirty shillings; a tooth in front struck out, eight shillings; but a man's grinder, fifteen shillings. Banishment from the city was a sentence quite frequently executed. Such punishments, fines, and the sentences previously noted were the penalties usually recommended in cases of larceny, assault, felony, breaking the Sunday law, etc., while imprisonment, as we know it, was employed largely as a penalty for debt, one prison being known as the "debtors' prison." It was not until 1831 that imprisonment for debt was finally abolished by State law.

Naturally, the early settlers brought with them the penalties and punishments of the mother land. It is interesting that certain Old World instruments of inflicting punishment, such as stocks and the pillory and cage, were erected in front of the first City Hall and were transferred to the front of the eighteenth-century City Hall, on Wall Street, serving as a spectacular warning and deterrent. Remarkably few instances of their use actually appear in the court records.

Even though Europe is held responsible for handing on to America such practices as previously noted, we must likewise give to her credit for the beginnings of better things. In 1669 Peter Rentzel, of Hamburg, having become convinced that the "exposure of petty thieves and prostitutes in the pillory tended to make them worse instead of better," built at his own expense a spin-house "to the glory of God and for the salvation of souls, where they might by labor and religious instruction be reclaimed both for time and for eternity." A few years later the English prison reformer John Howard, who for sixteen years labored zealously for prison betterment, cited an institution in Holland where the men were rasping logwood and the women carding wool, spinning, knitting, and weaving. He said that they were being set to work upon the principle, "Make men diligent, and you will make them honest." Almost contemporaneously with Howard as prison reformer was the Italian Beccaria, who likewise saw the need for labor and education of convicts.

Seventy years later a most remarkable institution was founded at Ghent, by Vilain (who has been called the father of modern penitentiary science), having reformation as its avowed end, and employing many of the means for that purpose which are in use to-day, first and foremost of which he placed industry.

In the early part of the nineteenth century the records show evidences of convict labor in our own city prisons. In 1812 the warden of the jail was instructed to employ the convicts in constructing matting to cover the audience floor of the Court of Sessions. A few years later convicts were set to work on the roads. In 1821 visitors poured into the city to observe the workings of the treadmill, stepping mill, or discipline mill, as it was variously called. Convicts by foot power turned a mill which ground forty or fifty bushels of grain a day. Its existence was short-lived, however, because it emphasized too much the old notion of intimidation and torture.

About the middle of the last century America established a reformatory system at Elmira, New York, based on a combination of principles and experiments tried out in many lands. Modifications of these principles, with some additions, are the basis of the prison treatment of to-day, which in general stands for:

1. Careful classification of cases and individual treatment.
2. An honest day's work.
3. Education to meet personal needs.
4. Recreation for mind and body.
5. Religious influences.
6. Wholesome and sanitary living conditions.
7. The incentive of the indeterminate sentence.

So rational do these methods seem that one wonders if greater attention to them in normal educative work might not reduce the numbers now receiving attention in our city corrective institutions at an annual expense of about $2,000,000. It is to be sincerely hoped that the increasing attention paid to the early segregation and special education of feeble-minded children will in a few years largely decrease the numbers of those in the criminal class. Since the beginning of the war, with its attendant prohibition measures, the city's criminal wards have decreased in numbers by about a third. With the final establishment of National prohibition one of the most prolific breeders of criminals will be practically eliminated. In many smaller cities jails and prisons are closing their doors or being converted to other uses, while smaller quarters answer the necessary purposes of prisons. Surely prevention may be considered better than cure.

It is a time when the things which have stood for many years are tottering on their foundations. The young people of to-day need, as never before, a training to aid them in distinguishing the true from the false, that their influence may be on the side of right. As long as communities exist there must be laws to regulate them. One cannot too early learn to respect law and authority and abide by them. If the laws are bad, improve them. Do not waste time trying to remove them. Honest work is a vital *reformative* measure. In an even truer sense, if possible, is it a vital *formative* measure, and perhaps the emphasis belongs quite as much on *honesty* as on *work*—a job not shirked or poorly done, but one into which the worker puts the best of himself even as does the winner in a race.

It has been possible to give in this article only the barest skeleton of the growth of the present system of dealing with the city's offenders. Enough has been revealed, perhaps, to show our tremendous debt to ages past; we should in like serious fashion realize our present obligations to hold fast to that which is good and to strive to improve conditions, so that future generations may inherit

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still better things. Is it not possible that the task before us may involve such a general uplift of humanity and such a sane improvement of social conditions that the present need of reformation of individuals may be reduced to a minimum?

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL NOTE

For a general book on the subject F. H. Wines's "Punishment and Reformation" is very helpful. B. G. Lewis's "The Offender" is written with closer reference to the city of New York. Arthur Woods's "Crime Prevention" is a brief treatment of the work of the New York City Police Department along this line. "New York City's Administrative Progress," 1914–16, pp. 144–182, contains the latest official report of the Department of Correction; many recent changes, of course, do not appear therein. In "Historic New York," Vol. II, is an essay on "Old Prisons and Punishments." Peterson and Edwards's "New York as an Eighteenth Century Municipality" contains chapters on "Charities and Correction." The archives of New York City are very rich in material on this subject. The original records of the Dutch city are in the custody of the City Clerk, and have been translated and printed in seven volumes entitled "Records of New Amsterdam." The Common Council records of the English city (also in the same custody) have been printed in eight volumes entitled "Minutes of the Common Council of the City of New York, 1675–1776." Also a twenty-volume set, representing the years 1784–1831, is almost completed. The records of the Mayor's Court, in manuscript only, are in the custody of the County Clerk; those of the Court of General Sessions, also in manuscript, are in the Criminal Courts building in the custody of the clerk of the Court. Hundreds of original papers, including committee reports, accounts of jail-keepers and building committees, are to be found, if the searcher is persevering, in the record rooms of the City Clerk and Comptroller.

THE CANDIDATE FOR CRAIG ROY

A STORY BY EASTON ETHERIDGE

ALEC forgot to get out. He had been so absorbed in the delight of looking at the beauties of the wild hills once more and of the rough smoothness of the wide moors that when the train pulled up at the little station of Dumfairlie it did not occur to him that this was his destination, having had the name of Craig Roy in mind.

But, fortunately, the guard remembered and threw open the door of the third-class carriage, calling loudly. Alec's eyes suddenly focused on his immediate surroundings, and he started up, seizing the worn black Gladstone from the rack over his head. With the other hand he carefully stowed away a briarwood pipe in his overcoat pocket, not stopping to knock out the ashes, and alighted rather awkwardly for his twenty-six years and slender body. He stood expectantly on the station platform, glancing about him with the curiosity of a prospective owner, and drinking in great draughts of the pure, fresh country air. There were no other passengers to alight this early Sabbath morning, and the train pulled out, leaving Alec, with the exception of the station master, alone on the platform. But he was being observed by a farmer in Sunday clothes lingering just inside the doorway of the tiny waiting-room.

From an Edinburgh citizen Alec's sartorial equipment would have drawn no second glance, but the farmer's study of him was long, and resulted in a feeling of approval, even of pride, that he was to be seen for many miles by his neighbors side by side with this sober and appropriately clad young man. Approval and pride were, however, states of mind which the farmer's nature forbade making evident. Alec presented the picture of an unmistakable Scotchman, from his closely cropped red head and fine sensitive mouth to his shepherd's plaid overcoat and thick-soled "boots." The clerical collar alone would have denoted his vocation, but he was further identified by his round and black broad-brimmed hat. The farmer moved toward him in a deliberate manner.

"Ye will be Mr. MacGregor?" he asked, respectfully.

Alec held out his hand.

"Aye," he said, pleasantly. "And you are Deacon Donald Fraser, of Craig Roy?"

At the deacon's not denying this, Alec added: "I was expectin' you." It felt good to drop the g's in this farming community.

"Ye will wait here, Mr. MacGregor. I've come to drive ye over. I'll now go fetch the cart," and without pausing for an answer Mr. Fraser went toward the back of the station, where he had tied the strong horse loaned him for the trip the day before and his own well-washed yellow dogcart. He was a kindly faced man, shaggy, short, and powerful, with high cheek-bones, bad teeth, a thick beard, and a cleanly shaved upper lip. He proved to be communicative to his guest.

"We hae ten miles afore us," he announced to Alec when they had started.

Heather was blooming on the hills like perpetual sunset that late summer morning. As the horse and cart sped over the good roads, past bits of woodland, then along a stretch of barren waste land, the soft breezes of the moors carried the fragrance of the blossoms to Alec's starved senses and he drew deep breaths of sweetness.

"Do ye no feel the smell of the heather!" he exclaimed, reverting to his boyhood dialect. "It's like my own hills of Invernesshire."

"It's grand," responded the deacon.

After this Alec was glad he had decided to come. The invitation to preach as a candidate for their pulpit which this little community had sent him had at first seemed an offer that was not worth consideration on his part; for not until he had searched on a Government map had he found such a place as Craig Roy recorded. Was the assistant pastor of one of the largest kirks in Edinburgh to bury himself in a little cotters' town of a place like that? He was desirous of holding a meenistership in full; but in a small, shepherds' community of ignorant, narrow people, after his long years of hard study and preparation for a much greater sphere of usefulness? Then his conscience sharply rebuked him. For this very pride in his long preparation he probably deserved punishment by suffering oblivion in just such a place as Craig Roy promised to be. Besides, it was an offer, and the first one in answer to his notice to the proper authorities of his desire to have a kirk of his own. It was probably God-sent; it would be a start, at least; he would be actually having a kirk of his own. But he slept little that night, thinking of his sin of pride, which he hoped he had conquered.

He now looked about him with an imagined sense of proprietorship at the small farms and tiny houses they were passing on their steady advance toward the still distant village. This sturdy man at his side would be one of his deacons; he had felt drawn toward him from the moment he had clasped his hand. Were they all as promising as Mr. Fraser?

After condescending so far as to let Alec know that their recent meenister had died in their service, and that "he was no sae bad," Mr. Fraser had relapsed into a communicative silence which Alec understood perfectly to mean that this congregation had loved the late incumbent with all their hearts. He hoped his own reward would be as great—if they called him. What an awfu' responsibility it would be, though, thought he, to have these living souls under his care single-handed, with no Meenister McPherson to seek for advice in difficult cases. Suppose he should have a wrong influence on even one of his flock; what a terrible weight to carry throughout his life! He would be verra sorry for this, his first charge. Mr. Fraser, at his side, would perhaps help him out later with his knowledge of the different dispositions and tendencies of the difficult members of the congregation when the need thereof should arise. Alec's wistful face became very solemn. He could only do his best and trust to God to help him in his care

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of the precious souls put into his spiritual keeping.

But the loveliness of the day gradually swept forebodings from his mind, and the remainder of the ten miles was all too short. That bonnie bit of Scotland was giving Alec such joy as can come only to a country-born and country-bred person just housed in a big city for an entire year.

The candidate was to be entertained at Deacon Fraser's house. As they reached the village and drove swiftly down the short main street with its low buildings erected flush with the edge of the street itself, with not an inch to spare for a blade of grass, Alec well knew that each window curtain concealed inquisitive persons of both sexes anxious to obtain a first glimpse of the prospective new meenister. Alec had two uncomfortable moments, in spite of having faced an Edinburgh congregation many times with equanimity; then he found himself beyond the gauntlet of hidden eyes, and was soon alighting at the door of a small farmhouse around the corner and a quarter of a mile up another road.

Mrs. Fraser shook hands with great respect and showed him to his room with many needless excuses for everything that might be wrong. As it was nearly church time, they went at once to the kirk, a little farther down the road. The neat, simple stone building, gray with the weather of many generations, was soon after only half filled when the entire community of earnest folk had assembled to hear—and judge—the new meenister. The selection of a new incumbent entailed serious individual responsibility on each person who had a voice in the decree.

Alec was sincere and serious and conducted the services with the solemnity that he deeply felt and that the congregation certainly expected him to feel. He had been able to send to the officers of the central body of the Church of Scotland a series of letters not often possessed by any young divine, for in college he had swept all before him and had secured six first prizes during his last year there. The further studies made possible to him through the assistance of these scholarships and bursaries Alec had undertaken with eagerness and a realization of the rare opportunity thus offered him. These honors and the high recommendations of his friends and teachers had placed him first on the "short leet," the list of candidates winning the highest approval of the committee. The members of the kirk of Craig Roy were not blind to the fact of what a fine thing it would be for their reputation should they *decide to call* such a grand scholar to their pulpit!

Alec's serious, sensitive face was lighted with spiritual grace from the moment he raised his head after his own silent petition for inspiration. The kirk had stood to the long prayers; had remained seated for the singing, which Mr. Fraser himself, after striking the tuning-fork, had led; had listened critically to the sermon of medium length, which had been delivered in terms so simple and clear that all might understand; and then, after the last beautiful words of the benediction, had turned and assembled in groups in the kirkyard among the gravestones and under the noonday shade of wide-spreading, ancient willows. It was here that Alec, having removed his ecclesiastical gown in the little dressing-room at the back of the building, was introduced to the members of his congregation and shook hands with them cordially and soul-heartedly. They were plain folk, weatherbeaten, ignorant, unhandsome, but serious and canny. They greeted Alec solemnly, with proper respect, then made way for him to return to the house with the deacon, and all adjourned for dinner.

At the table the deacon's family was served by a wholesome-looking girl who had come with them from the kirk. She placed mutton on the table, and 'taties, boiled, to be eaten with salt; these were accompanied by 'neeps, which we know as turnips; a tapioca soup preceded these, and a pudding followed. Alec partook with enjoyment of this homely country fare, although, like most thin people, he could not swallow fat, and, separating it from the lean mutton, he left it on the edge of his plate.

Seeing that he looked fagged, Mrs. Fraser took pity on him after they had finished the simple dinner.

"Will ye no tak' a bit rest afore the evenin' sarvice?" she asked him, kindly.

Alec thanked her, and, the deacon nodding in approval, went to his room, for he wanted to be fresh and forceful in the evening service; he desired to be at his best for these poor souls who had so much of nature's harshness in their lives. He stretched himself on his bed, intending to concentrate on the coming sermon and the prayer he had arranged, but the country air, the efforts of the morning, and the ample meal had their inevitable effect, and the next he knew he found that he had just awakened. Looking at his watch, he was horrified to see that he had slept two hours. He felt vaguely guilty, but he also felt rejuvenated, and his conscience was assuaged by the certainty of doing more justice to his subject at the approaching service because of his sound slumber.

He went out to the living-room, and after spending a pleasant and sober hour with the family before tea, which further refreshed him, they all went to the kirk together.

Again the service was impressive. In the course of his sermon Alec quoted a sentence from Mr. Gladstone, feeling that Mr. Gladstone had expressed a certain thought better than he himself could put it. As he left the pulpit at the end of his ministration he was conscious of an unusual spiritual exaltation and a not unreasonable hope that his words might have helped a few, at least, of these simple folk who chanced to be wavering in steadfast faith. It was not Alec's nature to be satisfied with anything he ever did. "I might have done better," he usually told himself; but over this Sabbath's work his conscience was less clamorous than was customary; in fact, the people were so plain and natural, so sincere and honest, that he felt sure he could attain to their standards of what a meenister should be, and could point out to them with simple directness the paths leading to the satisfaction of their primitive spiritual longings.

He slept unusually well that night, notwithstanding his long nap of the afternoon.

After his usual cold sponge the next morning and his careful dressing, he went out to a breakfast of oatmeal porridge, boiled eggs, and tea, of which he partook with his boyhood zest. In order to catch that day's train back to Edinburgh he was obliged to start soon afterward, so, following a quick walk around the farm with the deacon, he said good-by to his hostess and thanked her for her hospitality. Then he shook hands in farewell with the children and with the serving-maid.

Now it was in the order of procedure that he should leave some silver in this maid's hand, but Alec had thought it out. His conscience demanded that he leave her with a free mind to vote for or against him; her vote was as important as that of any member of the congregation; a shilling would prejudice her in his favor. Therefore he held toward her an empty palm when he bade her good-by. He wished them all a happy autumn, and got into the trap with Mr. Fraser, where Mrs. Fraser had already bestowed his bag, and drove off, raising his round black hat.

Two weeks—two long weeks—later, a letter was handed to Alec from Craig Roy. At last the decision! He was now to learn whether this little community had thought proper to accept him as their spiritual guide. During the preceding fortnight he had felt many and increasing misgivings, yet he was not prepared for the letter which he now opened.

Translated, it ran thus:

Mr. Alexander MacGregor, A.B., M.A., B.D.:

Dear Sir—I am no glad to be the person selected to write ye this letter, as ye will see why. Our kirk is no just pleased with ye. The reasons given are five.

First, ye are too proud to eat fat.

Second, ye are lazy, for ye slept twa hours in the middle of the Sabbath.

Third, ye're politics are no ours; ye showed approval of Gladstone in the evening sarvice.

Fourth, ye belong to the gentry and are extravagant; ye used a gay number of towels in the morning.

Fifth and last, ye are close; for ye went away with no remembrance for the servant who waited on ye.

Therefore the congregation has decided to try for some other meenister.

I regret, sir, that this kirk is so mad, positively mad, and that this unpleasant duty has been put upon me to write ye thereof. Respectfully,

DONALD FRASER.

In his astonishment Alec again reverted to the speech of his boyhood, and gave utterance to his strongest invective: "Weel, weel!" and he sat down limply. After a moment he added: "Weel, weel! I'm a humbler man!"

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A FAMOUS PAINTING BY GEORGE ROMNEY, RECENTLY SOLD IN LONDON

The portraits in this picture are those of Margaret Maria Elizabeth and Susanna Ephemia Beckford, daughters of William Beckford of Fonthill, an Englishman of great wealth, the author of "Vathek." Margaret later married General Orde, "without her father's consent and was never forgiven by him;" Susanna married her cousin, fourth Duke of Hamilton. The picture was one of the treasures of the Hamilton collection; it was recently sold at Christie's, in London, to the Duveen Brothers, American art dealers, for the record price of $273,000. It will be exhibited in America, it is announced

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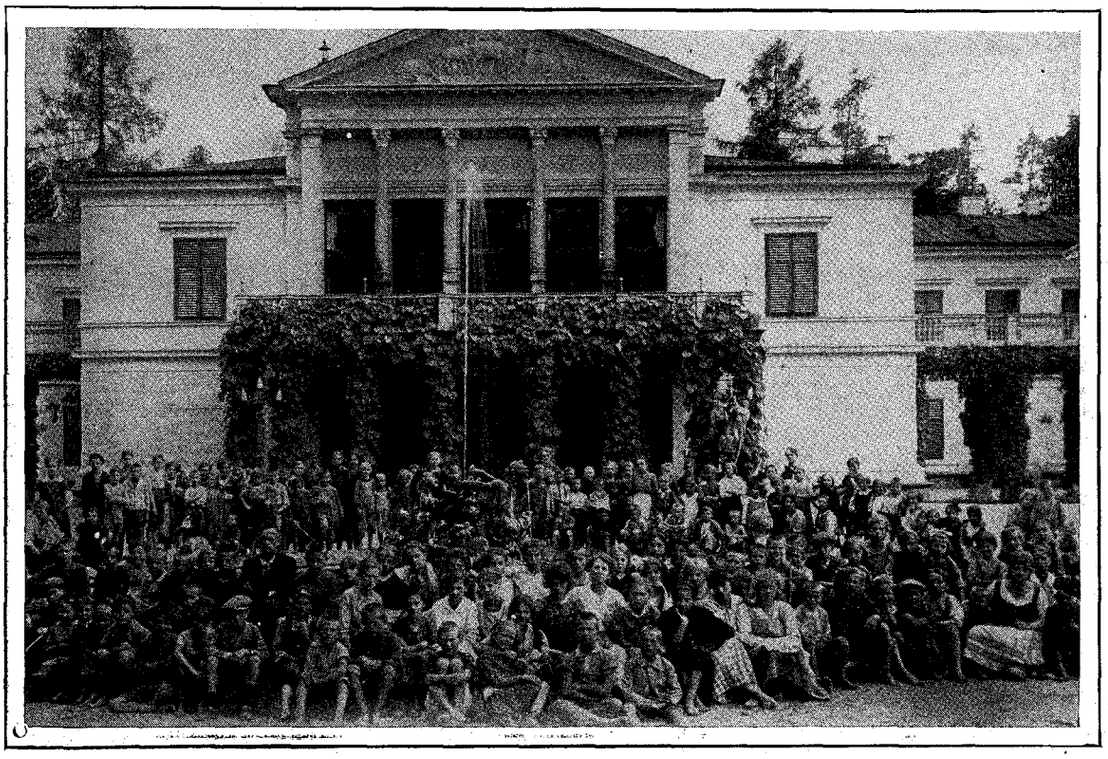

Press Illustrating Service

A ROYAL AUSTRIAN PALACE NOW A HOME FOR CHILDREN

One of the summer residences of the late Emperor Francis Joseph, at Ischl, near Salzburg, in the Tyrol, now used as a home for children from Vienna. Probably few but members of the Imperial house will regret the wider usefulness that has come to this fine place with the passing of the Hapsburgs as a reigning dynasty

(C) Western Newspaper Union

WOMEN VETERANS OF THE WAR MARCH IN JEWISH PROTEST AGAINST ALLEGED POGROMS

Nurses of Jewish extraction who served during the world war are seen in the picture as they marched from Rutgers Square to Carnegie Hall, in New York City, in a parade to protest against alleged persecutions of Jews in the Ukraine

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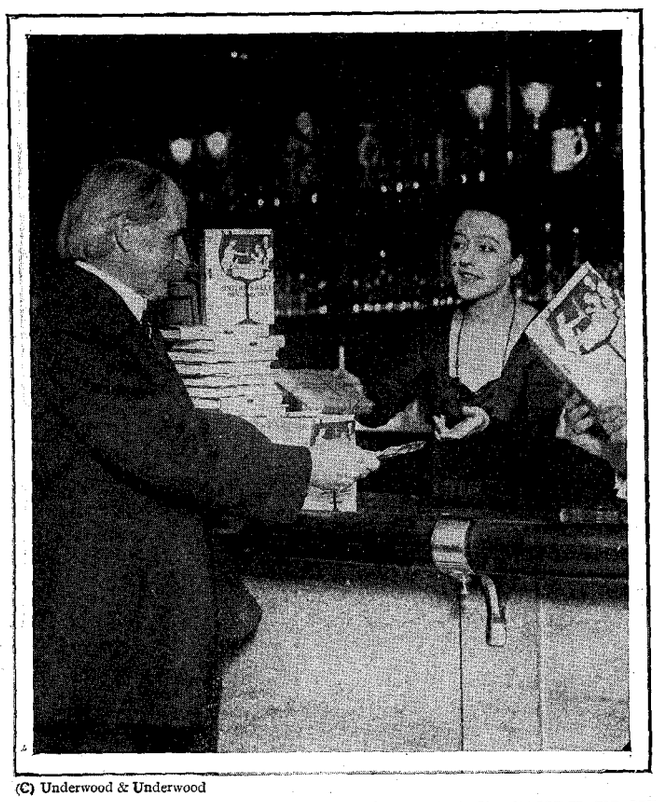
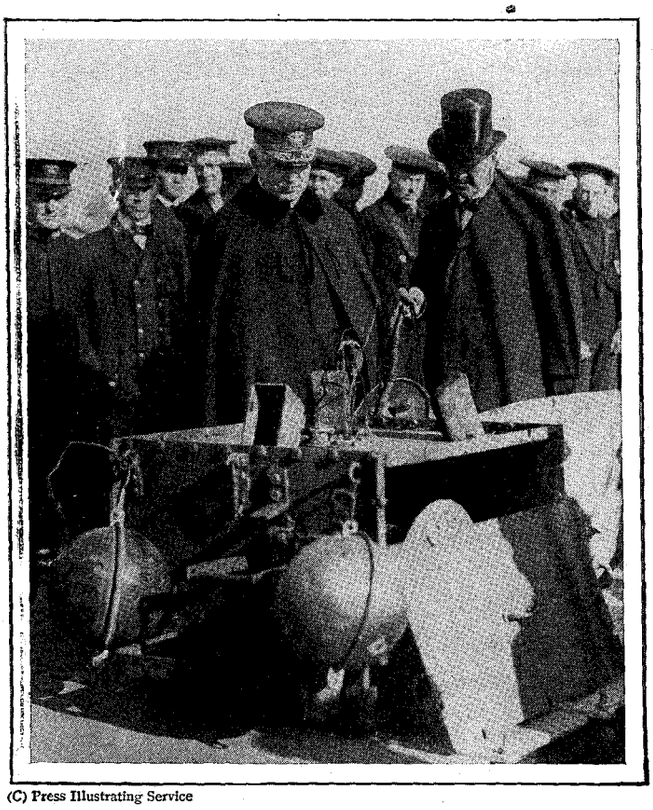


(C) Underwood & Underwood

(C) Press Illustrating Service

SELLING BOOKS AND CANDY IN NEW YORK HOTELS IN PLACE OF DRINKS

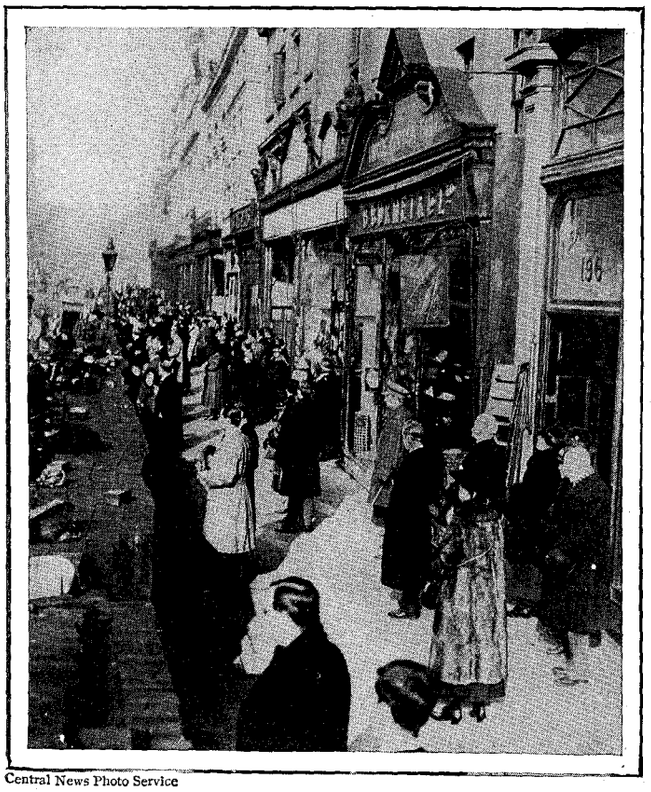
The picture on the left shows the former barroom of the Hotel Majestic in New York City, with the young bookseller delivering a book to Hamlin Garland, the well-known author. On the right appears a new confectionery shop in the Waldorf Astoria Hotel, which has discontinued its bar



(C) Press Illustrating Service

MINE-SWEEPERS RETURN TO AMERICA WITH TROPHIES FROM THE NORTH SEA

Fifty-nine mine-sweepers of the American Navy were recently reviewed in New York Harbor by Secretary Daniels (at right, in the picture). A mine swept up in the North Sea is in the foreground



Central News Photo Service

THE "SILENCE PERIOD" IN LONDON ON ARMISTICE DAY'S ANNIVERSARY

For two minutes on the first anniversary of Armistice Day Londoners stood in the streets with bared heads and in reverent silence in a tribute to the martyrs of the great war. The picture shows Oxford Street during the "silence"

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THE BOOK TABLE: DEVOTED TO BOOKS AND THEIR MAKERS

CHILDREN'S READING

BY SIDONIE MATZNER GRUENBERG

Author of "Sons and Daughters," "Your Child Today and Tomorrow," etc.

DURING the war it was evident that even the children would have to stand aside for the more urgent business of the world. One of the unregrettable results was that the normal flood of "books for children" that are mediocre or worse halted sufficiently long to enable us to realize that life could go on just as well without it. And since the armistice each new batch of books released, after many obstacles, has had an increasing proportion of quality. Perhaps the rising cost of labor and materials and the hesitancy of the business man have forced upon the publishers a more severe selection than had been common in the past. Whatever the causes, the situation is in every way encouraging, except perhaps in the field of fiction for older children.

For one thing, there is a new spirit manifest even in the books for the littlest children. The old tales are not merely reprinted, they are retold with a freshness and vigor that suggest new resolution and new enthusiasm. Then there is evident a certain freedom of the imagination that is full of promise. Our writers are to be no longer afraid to invent their own models. The artistic side also shows a tendency to disregard the standard and the hackneyed.

In the subject-matter there is a new note of realism, showing unmistakable influences of our war experience. There is the presentation of nature facts and scientific discoveries and technical applications in a way that takes for granted the child's right to know and his desire to know; he is not treated as though he had to be tricked into knowing. And, finally, there is a much more frank appeal to idealism than has appeared for several years. This is something beyond the appeal to patriotism and loyalty that were necessitated by the war; it is a presentation of heroism and devotion and service as common human ideals that direct the vision to a better future, and that strengthen the determination for a more strenuous present.

A SELECTED LIST OF BOOKS FOR THE YOUNG

NURSERY READINGS

A Child's Garden of Verses. By Robert Louis Stevenson. Illustrated in color by Maria L. Kirk. J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.

An attractive edition.

Jane, Joseph and John. By Ralph Bergengren. *Atlantic Monthly Press.* $2.50.

Charming child-life verses with realistic pictures; will fascinate younger children.

Mother Goose. Edited by Laurence Elmendorf. Illustrations by E. Boyd Smith. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.

Large, handsome edition; illustrations humorous, artistic, and full of charm; large colored plates and decorations in black and white.

Old Mother Goose Nursery Rhyme Book. Illustrated in colors and in black and white by Anne Anderson. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $5.

An usually attractive and luxurious book.

Sandman Tales. Stories for Bedtime. (Second Series.) By Abbie Phillips Walker. Harper & Brothers. *50c.*

Charming short stories.

The Adventures of the Greyfur Family.

The Greyfurs' Neighbors. By Vera Nyce. J. B. Lippincott Co. 50c. each.

Attractive little stories.

When We Were Little. Children's Rhymes of Oyster Bay. By Mary Fanny Youngs. Introduction by Theodore Roosevelt. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.

Sweet humor in the word pictures that will appeal to children.

FAIRY AND FOLK TALES

At the Back of the North Wind. By George Macdonald. *David McKay, Philadelphia.* $2.50.

A handsome gift edition of this peerless old favorite; with colored illustrations by Jessie Willcox Smith.

Belgian Fairy Tales. By William Elliot Griffis. Thomas Y. Crowell Co. $1.25.

Full of local atmosphere. Good pictures in color.

The Book of Fables and Folk Stories. By Horace E. Scudder. Houghton Mifflin Co. $1.25.

New edition of well-known collection, containing all the old favorites, as Cinderella, Tom Thumb, Beauty and the Beast, etc. Attractive little volume.

Czechoslovak Fairy Tales. Retold by Parker Fillmore. Harcourt, Brace & Howe. $2.

Tales containing all the fairy characters dear to childhood, with a background of different customs and manners; from Czechoslovakian and Moravian sources. Colorful, characteristic illustrations by a Czech artist, Jan Matulka.

Little Brother and Little Sister, and Other Tales by the Brothers Grimm. Dodd, Mead & Co. $4.

Beautiful volume; forty well-known fairy tales; profusely illustrated with colored plates and black and white decorations by Arthur Rackham.

Serbian Fairy Tales. Translated from the Serbian by Mme. Flodie L. Myatovich. Illustrated by Sidney Stanley. Robert McBride & Co. $1.60.

Fantastic tales, full of color. Characteristic illustrations.

Seven Peas in a Pod. By Margery Bailey. Little, Brown & Co. $3.

"A fairy tale for each day of the week." A welcome new vein of fantasy. Attractively illustrated in colors.

The Spanish Fairy Book. By Gertrude Segovia. Translated by Elizabeth Vernon Quinn. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.

Full of adventure: giving a clear reflection of the old Spanish culture, customs, and chivalry. Illustrated.

JUST STORIES

A Little Boy Lost. By W. H. Hudson. Alfred A. Knopf. $1.75.

A delightful and graphic mixture of imagination and close observation of nature's aspects and moods. An excellent introduction to the work of this unusual author. For all ages, from about 10 years up.

Bud and Bamboo. By John Stuart Thomson. D. Appleton & Co. 50c.

The story of a Chinese boy, describing the customs of the country and the games and activities of Chinese children. 8-10.

Heidi. By Johanna Spyri. J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.50.

A handsome gift edition of this old favorite. Fourteen illustrations in color by Maria L. Kirk, and marginal decorations suggesting the Alpine background of the story. 8-12.

Hidden Treasure. By John Thomas Simpson. J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.

Splendid story of the reconstruction of an old farm through the application of modern farm and business principles, with a charming romance interwoven. Over 14.

Jeremy. By Hugh Walpole. George H. Doran Co. $1.75.

A tale of happy childhood in a quiet English cathedral town. 16-18 and over.

The Refugee Family: A Story for Girls. By Flavia Camp Canfield. Harcourt, Brace & Howe. $1.50.

Story of a French family during the German occupation of northern France; simply and sympathetically told. 8-12.

When I was a Girl in Mexico. By Mercedes Godoy. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co. 75c.

In "Children of Other Lands" series. Graphic account of the country and its customs; describes recent events. 8-12.

CLASSICS FOR CHILDREN

The Book of Wonder Voyages. Edited by Joseph Jacobs. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.

The best known of the Greek, Celtic, Scandinavian, and Arabian "wonder" voyages, interestingly told. 10-14, and for older children; historical notes appended.

The Children's Homer. By Padraic Colum. The Macmillan Co. $2.

An excellent rendition of the two epics in simple and vigorous form; colored and black line pictures by Willy Pogány, the latter especially effective.

Gulliver's Travels. By Jonathan Swift. Edited by Padraic Colum. The Macmillan Co. $2.

A very attractive gift edition; pictured in colors and line by Willy Pogány. 8-12.

A Hundred Tales of Aesop. With Pictures by J. B. Billinghurst. John Lane Co. $2.

Very fine edition. Profusely illustrated in black and white. Introduction by Kenneth Grahame. 8-12.

Stories of Great Adventures. By Carolyn Sherwin Bailey. Milton Bradley Co. $1.25.

An excellent collection of stories adapted from the classics. Can be used as a guide to the story teller. 8-12.

Wonder Book of the Bible. By Florence Choate and Elizabeth Curtis. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $2.50.

Good selections from the Old and the New Testament, using English that the child will understand, and still retaining a suggestion of the King James diction. Colored and black illustrations. 10-14.

NATURE

The Burgess Bird Book. By Thornton W. Burgess. Little, Brown & Co. $2.50.

An excellent introduction to bird form and bird life, for young children, with over fifty colored pictures in his best style, by Louis Agassiz Fuertes. 10-14.

Nature (Continued)

The Babyhood of Wild Beasts. By Georgia M. McNally. G. H. Doran Co. $2.

Interesting and instructive; well illustrated from photographs; a good step from fable to genuine natural history. 8-14.

The Children's Life of the Bee. By Maurice Maeterlinck. Selected and arranged by Alfred Sutro and Herschel Williams. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.

An attractive adaptation of this literary masterpiece, beautifully illustrated in color by E. L. Detmold. 10-14.

Our Winter Birds: How to Know and How to Attract Them. By Frank M. Chapman. D. Appleton & Co. $1.

Instructive and interesting; illustrations in color and in black by Ernest Thompson Seton and Edmund J. Sawyer. 10-14.

Shasta of the Wolves. By Olaf Baker. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.75.

Life of the forest as seen by an Indian boy who is lost in infancy and becomes a member of a wolf pack. Good illustrations by Charles Livingston Bull. 10-14.

APPLIED SCIENCE

The American Boy's Engineering Book. By A. Russell Bond. J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.

An excellent guide to the making of many interesting and ingenious devices; develops sound scientific principles through play. 10-14 and over.

The Boys' Airplane Book. By A. Frederick Collins. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.

Facts about the history, construction, and uses of airplanes. Boys 12-16.

The Boys' Book of Engine Building. By A. Frederick Collins. Small, Maynard & Co. $1.25.

Interesting, instructive. Illustrated by the author. Boys 12-16.

The Boys' Book of Great Inventions. By Floyd L. Darrow. The Macmillan Co. $2.50.

A good account of various scientific principles and their application, with suggestions for experiments and demonstrations; illustrated. Boys 14 and over.

Carpentry and Mechanics for Boys. By A. Neely Hall. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co. $2.

Wide range of projects; appeals to all tastes and all degrees of skill; by an authority on boys' activities. Boys 10-14 and over.

The Marvel Book of American Ships. By Captain Orton P. Jackson and Major Frank E. Evans. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $3.

Detailed descriptions, numerous illustrations; accounts of great sea battles and other matters connected with ships and marine life. Boys 10-14.

A Short History of Discovery. From Earliest Times to the Founding of Colonies on the American Continent. By Hendrik Willem Van Loon. *David McKay.* $1.50.

"An historical appetizer." Very clever pictures drawn with a match stick and colored inks; full page illustrations; text interesting, instructive, and authoritative. Author is lecturer in Modern History at Cornell University. 8-12.

TALES OF ACHIEVEMENT

The Aztec Hunters. By Francis Rolt Wheeler. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co. $1.50.

The first complete account of modern discoveries concerning the ancient Maya and Aztec civilizations on the American continent, in story form. Interesting and authentic. 12-14 and over.

The Boy With the U. S. Naturalists. By Francis Rolt Wheeler. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co. $1.50.

Explorations and adventures related to bird life, conservation, and economics. Authentic; well illustrated. Boys 12-16.

Opening the Iron Trail. By Edward L. Sabin. Thomas Y. Crowell Co. $1.50.

Vivid adventures connected with the completion of the Pacific railways in the late sixties; instructive and stimulating. Boys 10-14.

Pioneer Days. By Mary Carmichael. Duffield & Co. $1.35.

Tales depicting the courage, coolness, and splendid fortitude of the pioneer men and women on the frontiers of civilization during the days when the Indian was a menace. 10-14.

HEROISM AND CHARACTER

The Book of Bravery.

The Book of Bravery. Second Series. By Henry W. Lanier. *Charles Scribner's Sons.* $2 *each.*

Excellently selected and arranged; well told and illustrated; inspiring idealism. First Series: Facing Death to Avoid It; Treasure Seekers; Soldiers who Knew No Fear; Exploits of the Sea; Deeds of Discipline. Second Series: Indians, Bears, etc.; Large Game; Explorations; In Spite of Fear; Patriotism, Loyalty, etc. A Third Series is in preparation. 12-14 and over.

The Boys' Life of Theodore Roosevelt. By Hermann Hagedorn. Harper & Brothers. $1.25.

Vivid and intimate picture that brings out the character and personality of the subject; an interesting and inspiring book. 10-14 and over.

The Maid of Orleans: A Story of Jeanne d'Arc for Girls. By M. C. Smith. Thomas Y. Crowell Co. $1.25.

An impressive story emphasizing the sentiment and idealism that have grown up about the heroine. Girls 10-14.

Rebels and Reformers. By Arthur and Dorothea Ponsonby. Henry Holt & Co. $1.60.

Interesting and inspiring stories of such notable figures as Savonarola, Bruno, Voltaire, Lloyd Garrison, Thoreau, and other free spirits and leaders of thought. Over 14.

Theodore Roosevelt's Letters to His Children. *Charles Scribner's Sons.* $2.

A very interesting collection, including many of the "picture letters." Will appeal also to parents. 8-14.

Uncle Joe's Lincoln. By Edward A. Steiner. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.25.

Interesting childhood experiences in Hungary, with a background of reverence for Lincoln and love for the free institutions of the United States. 10-14.

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THE NEW BOOKS

FICTION

Off Duty. A Dozen Yarns for Soldiers and Sailors. Compiled by Wilhelmina Harper. The Century Company, New York.

A volume of stories (all readable and several deserving the somewhat amorphous appellation of "classic") which range in character from George Fitch's "Ole Skjarsen's First Touchdown" to William Dean Howells's "A Case of Metaphantasmia" and from Oscar Wilde's "The Nightingale and the Rose" to Bret Harte's "The Outcasts of Poker Flat."

Old Card (The). By Roland Pertwee. Boni & Liveright, New York.

These short stories of English stage life are grouped around the personality of an actor of the old-time ranting, robustious, and sentimental type, devoid of a sense of humor, but generous and tender-hearted.

Trail Makers (The). By Charles Pierce Burton. Illustrated. Henry Holt & Co., New York.

HISTORY AND POLITICAL ECONOMY

Modern Japan: Social—Industrial—Political. By Amos S. Hershey and Susanne W. Hershey. The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis.

Every time a political issue arises between the United States and Japan there is proof that American jingoes and yellow journalists have not worked in vain to create a widespread, unfair prejudice against the Island Empire of the Orient. It is a pleasure to find a book like this one, which with all its limitations approaches its subject in the spirit of unflinching fairness. The reader may not agree with all the conclusions of the authors of "Modern Japan," but he will be pretty sure to feel that those conclusions are the result of an honest attempt to get at the truth. The chapters which deal with social and moral conditions in Japan are especially interesting. The authors are particularly to be congratulated on avoiding the error of many other writers, who have based their criticism on the smug assumption that the conventions of the Western world are necessarily the best conventions for Japan.

Russia's Ruin. By E. H. Wilcox. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.

There are many books on the Russian Revolution, but probably few exceed in value this volume by the former correspondent of the London "Daily Telegraph" at Petrograd. Mr. Wilcox has done more than offer us a hash of journalistic essays. He has been at pains to verify his facts from original documents, and the result is a work of reference of more than temporary value.

ESSAYS AND CRITICISM

Poet of Science (The), and Other Addresses. By William North Rice. The Abingdon Press, New York.

Uttermost Star (The), and Other Gleams of Fancy. By F. W. Boreham. The Abingdon Press, New York.

Life of Dante Alighieri. By Charles Allen Dinsmore. Illustrated. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.

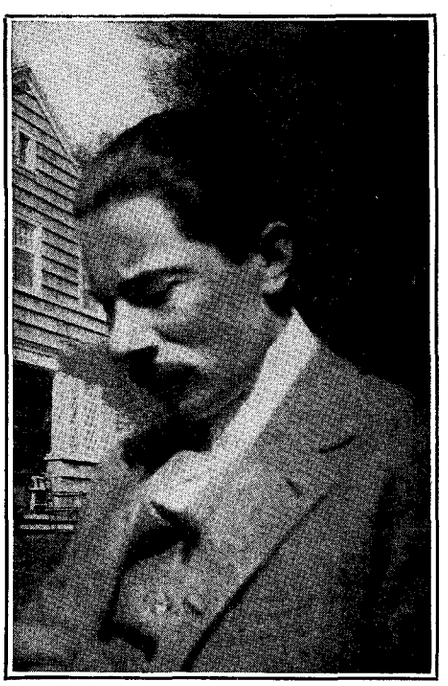
Of the making of books about Dante there seems to be no end and there should be no end. The present volume, by a well-known Dante critic, will be gladly added to the book-shelves of every Dante lover. This volume is more than a biography. It also deals with the century and the city to which Dante belongs and is as well a study and interpretation of Dante as a literary artist. Quite aside from these merits we may read between the lines a sermon in spiritual strength, the example being of Dante himself, who out of disillusionment and humiliation pressed on to peace and victory.

POETRY

Dust and Light. By John Hall Wheelock. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.

John Hall Wheelock's new volume shows a noteworthy development in his art since the publication of his "Love and Liberation" some five or six years ago. Perhaps the chief advance has been in the direction of self-criticism, for his last volume indicated that he could not always discriminate between the chaff and the wheat of his own creation. There is little occasion to make such a remark in connection with "Dust and Light."

Mr. Wheelock has gained tremendously too in that reticence and that power to exercise restraint which does not conceal passion, but does lend to it a high dignity. Both the gain in self-criticism and the gain



JOHN HALL WHEELOCK, AUTHOR OF "DUST AND LIGHT"

in restraint have been won without any loss in the lyrical quality for which Mr. Wheelock has been deservedly well known ever since his college days.

We wish we might have space for extended quotations from this present volume, for "Dust and Light" will, without doubt, take a high place among the leading books of poetry of the present year. We have room here only for one short poem which appears in a series entitled "Be Born Again!"

Moonlight is memory; now the sun
His radiant race in heaven has run,
Backward he sheds from far away
The light of our lost yesterday.

On the pillow where your head
Lay dreaming, on the empty bed
Falls the moonlight, on the walls
The lonely light of memory falls.

Where it rested your pale hair
Has left its print in moonlight, where
Your perfect loveliness did press
Lingers a vanished loveliness.

Gaunt in the moonlight the road lies
That took you from my longing eyes,
And one wide window, drenched with light,
Stares out into the marble night. . . .

TRAVEL AND DESCRIPTION

Historic Trees of Massachusetts (The). By James Raymond Simmons. Illustrated. The Marshall Jones Company, Boston.

The Washington Elm at Cambridge, the Eliot Oak at South Natick, the trees of Boston Common, and many other famous New England trees are affectionately described and their history related in this handsome book. The photogravure illustrations are worthy of the subject and of the dignified typography of the text.

Loiterer in New England (A). By Helen W. Henderson. Illustrated. The George H. Doran Company, New York.

Miss Henderson is really a very industrious loiterer, for her book is replete with interesting details about the history, topography, and architecture of New England which only a conscientious student could have learned. She has made a book that will please both those who know their New England and those who are as yet strangers to its charms.

WAR BOOKS

Germany's Moral Downfall. By Alexander W. Crawford. The Abingdon Press, New York.

Many writers have expressed their views on the subject of Germany's moral downfall. Certain it is, however, that the present volume bearing this title is one worth reading. If we need to realize one thing more than another, it is that Germany's defeat in the late war was not because the Allies conquered her militarily so much as because they triumphed morally.

Romance of Aircraft (The). By Laurence Yard Smith. Illustrated. The Frederick A. Stokes Company, New York.

A succinct and readable account of man's conquest of the air from the day of Montgolfier's balloon to the present time. The work of aircraft in the great war is fully described, with interesting personal details about the great "aces."

Story of the Rainbow Division (The). By Raymond S. Tompkins. With an Introduction by Major-General Charles T. Menoher. Boni & Liveright, New York.

This is a readable official history of one of the most famous of American divisions, which its commander, Major-General Charles T. Menoher, assures the reader in a preface is accurately told.

MISCELLANEOUS

Housing of the Unskilled Wage Earner (The). America's Next Problem. By Edith Elmer Wood. (American Social Progress Series.) The Macmillan Company, New York.

Surely no one acquainted with conditions in Boston, New York, and other great cities would contend that present-day housing conditions in America do not fall far short of accepted standards. What we now need, as the late war has shown us, is a housing policy equally useful in war and peace. In this volume Mrs. Wood recounts conditions which make the housing problem one of the most important now before the country. She presents the restrictive legislation which has been adopted, and then considers the various philanthropic schemes to build modern dwellings. The book merits the attention of any one who realizes that our great cities have no more insistent social duty than to make sure that the dwellings of even the poorest citizens are clean and wholesome.

Jew Pays (The). A Narrative of the Consequences of the War to the Jews of Eastern Europe, and of the Manner in Which Americans Have Attempted to Meet Them. By M. E. Ravage. Alfred A. Knopf, New York.

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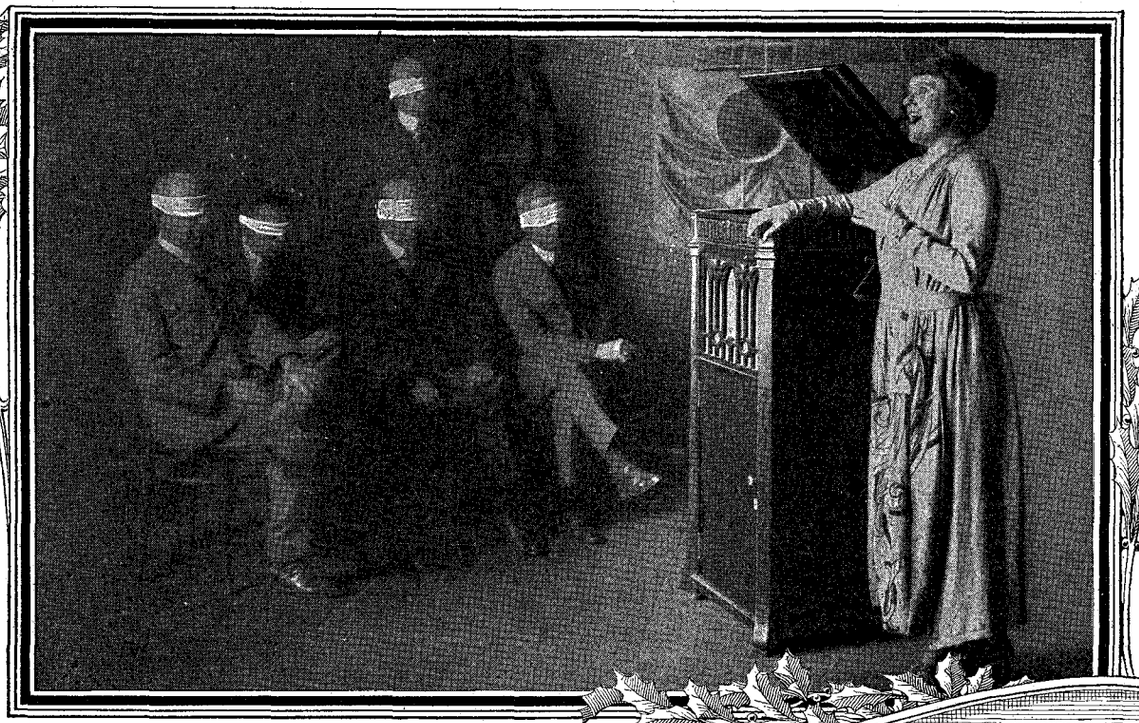

Reproduced from actual photographs taken at Edison Recording Studios, New York

The blindfolded jury hears Hempel sing "Io non sono piu l'Annetta," while she stands beside the New Edison.

No dif

THE BLINDFOLD TEST is the most severe of all musical tests; shutting off a person's sight greatly increases his acuteness of hearing. Yet even the blindfold test has been successfully met by the New Edison.

Frieda Hempel, prima donna soprano of the Metropolitan Opera Company, New York, appeared before five of Thomas A. Edison's musical experts to perform the test. She stood beside the New Edison. The blindfolds were adjusted over the eyes of the five men. As shown in the first photograph, Hempel then started to sing. The selection was "Io non sono piu l'Annetta" from the opera "Crispino e la Comare." Suddenly Hempel stopped singing, but the song continued. The New Edison had taken up the song and was singing alone. The five experts, even though their hearing faculties were at highest concentration, were completely unaware that Hempel had ceased and that they were listening only to the New Edison's RE-CREATION of her voice.

Two million people have heard similar tone-tests, publicly given by forty different artists. Five hundred representative newspapers have publicly recorded the fact that no one has been able to distinguish the artist's living art from its RE-CREATION by the New Edison. The proof of this is founded upon scientific fact; it is piled mountain-high. The New Edison brings you all the living artist can bring, excepting his physical presence.

The NEW

"The Phonograph

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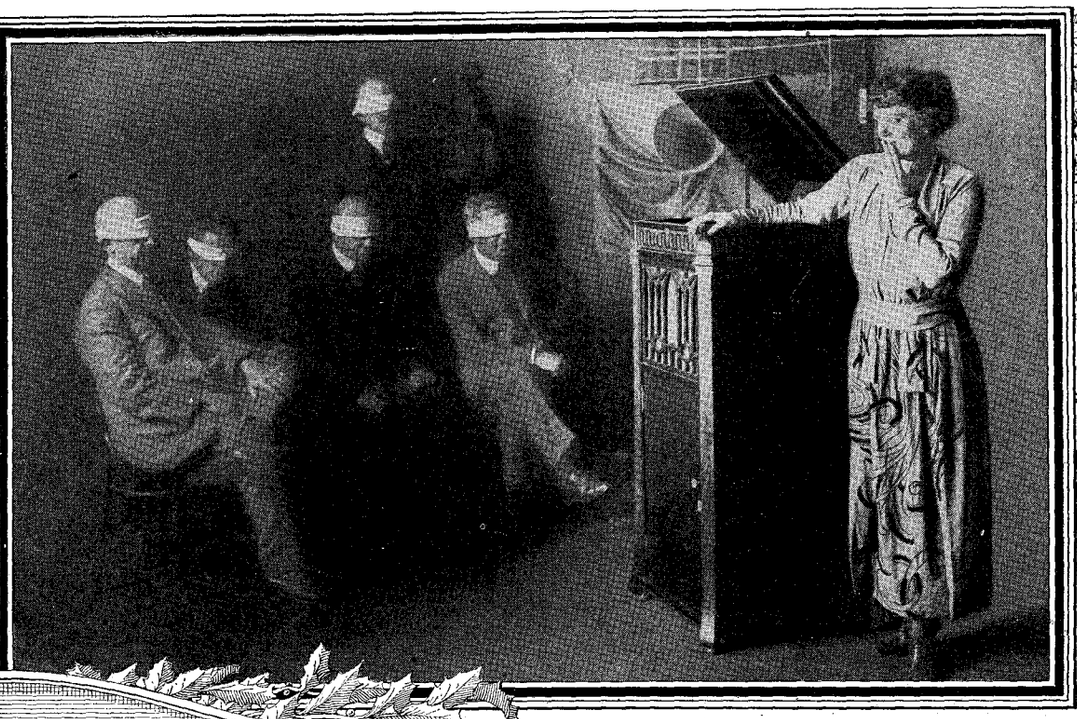

Thirty seconds later! Hempel has ceased. The blindfold jury is not aware that the New Edison is singing "Io non sono piu l'Annetta" alone.

ference!

FRIEDA HEMPEL is called "Hempel of the Voice Supreme." You might think this is because of her technique—so flawless, so superb! Or because of her notes, pure as the chiming of silver bells.

But Hempel is infinitely more than a vocalist. Hear her sing some song she loves, and suddenly you understand what it is that makes her great among the greatest in opera and concert. For you fall under the spell of a mysterious, lifting power—a power which transmutes every note into gold and every bar into angel-music. It is Hempel's sublime artist-soul. Soul is that electric something, that transcendent something, that eternal something, which makes music the mind's solace and inspiration. The soul of music is what Edison has caught and perpetuated in his RE-CREATIONS. That is why he considers the New Edison the greatest of his inventions. That is why the heart of the music-lover responds to a RE-CREATION by the New Edison, even as it responds to the art of the living artist.

Go hear the New Edison. Hear it with your eyes closed, for that is the best way to listen to music. You will feel that the artist himself is standing before you—alive! Write to Thomas A. Edison, Inc., Orange, N. J., for the most interesting phonograph story of the year, "Edison and Music."

EDISON

with a Soul"

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EXTRAVAGANCE OR STANDARDS?

BY MARY E. McDOWELL

Head Worker, University of Chicago Settlement

Grave questions that face the world today are dealt with superficially at afternoon teas in Paris and London. All unconsciously the ladies over the teacups touch on deep-seated causes of industrial unrest when they talk of the extravagance of the munition women workers. They speak of the fact that during the war these women received higher wages than they ever dreamed of, and "they spent their money so foolishly." These discussions had value to me because I had just finished a three months' study of the munition women of France and England for the American Y. W. C. A. War Work Council, and I had the opportunity of visiting with them and getting their point of view. I met many problems and much questioning among these women, four hundred and fifty thousand of whom in France had never before been in factories. They were mostly housewives or workers on fine materials, making beautiful things. The hands that had worked on dainty stuffs were now handling iron and copper, and instead of embroidering were filling shells with deadly powder.

When the armistice was signed and the Government announced that no more munitions would be made, there was fear and dread in their hearts, for thousands of these women were refugees and had no homes to turn to. When hostilities ceased, a new sense of freedom came to the civilians who had restrained their critical tongues for four years. Now they could speak out. It was a relief to the nerves to be critical of those who could not criticise back. Everywhere in France and England I heard the lament from ladies that the munition women who were formerly domestic servants were not hastening back to the homes that needed them. The criticism heard oftener was that the munition workers had received high wages and had spent their money foolishly. "Extravagance" was the word heard many times. These workingwomen, instead of saving, were spending their money on furs, jewelry, etc. It was always the munition women who were accused of extravagance, though I had read in the press that as soon as hostilities ceased orders for the 1919 motors were sent in in great numbers, and that more jewelry and expensive clothes were being purchased, not by munition *workers*, but by munition *makers*.

I found that it was true that women were receiving higher wages than they had ever received before. During the four years of war the need was so great that girls and women from the sweated trades in England and the "home workers" in France received a "living wage." Frenchwomen who had before the war worked at home on lingerie and other dainty things for twenty to sixty cents a day had received during the war $1 25 to $2.40 a day.

Englishwomen, chain makers and pottery workers, engaged in what had been counted always as "sweated" and "parasitic industries," were during the war getting sixteen and one-half cents an hour. When one remembers the intoxicating effect of coming into the possession of money unexpectedly, and the pleasure of spending some of it foolishly, just because of the novelty of the experience, one is not surprised to hear that some young French girls bought too many cosmetics and attended too many cinemas. In one munition plant I saw in the midst of machinery, dirt, and noise an eternally feminine act, a young girl stopping in the midst of her work at a machine to make use of her "vanity case." She held the little mirror up before her attractive face while she powdered her nose and chin. I have to confess that it did my human heart good to see this normal act in the midst of the abnormal life of the world, of this time of 1918, and for the moment I forgave her extravagance. I can imagine that the thrifty French refugees saved for that day when they could return to their homes that had been destroyed. There was no doubt some extravagance, though I heard of one French girl who sent one hundred francs to her parents every pay day, and many stories of generosity to each other were told.

On making inquiries of those close to the munition women as to their extravagance, I was told that they were most generous in purchasing war bonds and savings stamps, and that they gave freely to each other, especially to those comrades in distress. Woolwich Arsenal raised thousands for its relief fund from its own workers in the shops. I had an opportunity of talking of this matter of extravagance with Mr. Serbohn Rountree, of York, whose sociological studies are authorities in both England and America. He asked me concerning the teacup discussion whether the ladies who criticised the munition women said anything about the extravagance of the profiteers.

Mr. Rountree then told me the following story, which well illustrates my theme. A lady, after addressing munition women on "War Thrift," asked if any one had anything to say. One girl arose and said: "Yes, I have something to s'y. Savin's is all right and very good, but I want to tell yees that my mother never in her life saw a whole roast chicken till I brought it home the first Sunda' after my first pay day, and I want to tell yees that my mother's going to have a whole roast chicken every Sunda' as long as I can buy it." She then added: "I always had to buy the cheapest blouses made, and at last I bought a silk blouse, and my young man came home on a furlough. He looked at me and said, 'Why, Maggie, what have ye done to yerself? I never saw ye look like that!'" Then, with a challenge in her voice, she added: "I want to say that, savin's or no savin's, as long as he talks like that I'm goin' to buy silk blouses!"

Mr. Rountree made this significant comment, that, to his mind, this girl was not extravagant, but had shown only a rising standard of living.

From others who were near to the women who were accused I learned that homes had been refurnished, that such necessities as sheets and pillow-slips, blankets and comforters, had been purchased, that among the pottery workers the hat had taken the place of the shawl on the head. Those who know, because they are in contact with the women workers, say that the women of France and England will never again be content with sweated wages.

There is a "noble discontent" that will not down in either France or England. Frenchwomen with whom I talked told me that if they went back home to work they would call seven francs ($1.40) a day the minimum that would satisfy their needs.

Herman
Style 51

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Extravagance or Standards? (Continued)

They said, as they counted on their fingers, "That will pay for rent, heat, light, food, and clothing." They did not add any luxuries, but were happy to fancy themselves assured of necessities.

In England for four years, while the demand was for the greatest amount of munitions in the shortest time, the women were housed and fed better than ever before in their lives. In many places they had bathing facilities and recreation such as had never before been theirs. The lady in charge of the "hostels" in Coventry, where thousands of women have been cared for on a standard that England had not dreamed of in times of peace, told me that the younger women were unhappy in leaving, for they said, "We have no baths at home and no place for recreation." That these new standards have come to stay all liberal-minded men and women are now saying.

These standards are based upon better incomes for the people. It is felt that government of the people, by the people, and for the people dare not have citizenship which holds low standards of living. In every country where labor has awakened the demand is growing more and more for those standards of living that provide housing with sufficient rooms for privacy, for the decencies of life, bathing facilities, for the necessities, good food, good clothes, recreation, holidays, and education. At a mass-meeting in Paris under the auspices of the clothing-makers' union I heard a French working-woman say to her hearers that "every woman has a right to a garden, a laundry, and a lift."

This is the problem that faces all peoples to-day where the wage-earners are awakened. The question of whether roast chicken and silk waists are luxuries or necessities of a higher standard of living is of deeper import than ladies at afternoon teas dream. Enlightened public opinion will do much towards a peaceful outcome. It may be that one side of life will have to lower its extravagant standards to meet the growing standards of the other side. Since I am not a philosopher nor an economist, I dare not speak with authority; but I cannot help wondering where the social thermometer of standards will register roast chicken, silk waists, several automobiles, or three residences. This is not wholly an individual responsibility; it lies deeper than reasoning; it is becoming a universal problem.

THE HINDU PLANT TRICK

(From the New York "Evening Sun")

A very perplexing trick of Eastern origin makes a plant in full flower develop from a seed in a few minutes. If properly carried out, the trick is very striking, for it can be performed in full view of the spectators without any elaborate apparatus, according to an interesting exposé of an old occult maneuver carried in the columns of the "Scientific American." What the onlookers see is on the following lines:

The seed is inserted in the middle of a pot of soil. Then the soil is watered, and almost at once the plant arises from the earth. That it is a real plant is evident when pieces of it are picked and handed around to the audience.

The explanation is simple enough, and it is needful only to make a few preparations in advance. In the first place, a good-sized flower pot is needed. As well, too, secure a jar that will fit inside the pot and

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The Hindu Plant Trick (*Continued*)

when in position sink a few inches below the rim. Get a round piece of cork such as will just fit into the jar. It should, however, be able to move up and down freely. Then into the center of the cork push a stem of any plant bearing flowers and leaves. This should be rather short, so that when the cork is in the jar the highest part of the plant is below the top of the vessel.

The jar may now be placed in the pot and the cork with the flowering stem let down into the jar. Next cut a rounded piece of paper slightly smaller than the top of the pot. This should look as much like the soil as possible. In the center of this piece cut several slits crossing one another.

Fill soil all around in between the jar and the pot. Place the piece of paper right over the top of the jar and add a layer of soil so that the whole thing is entirely covered.

To perform the trick a jug of water is needed. Push the seed down into the soil, then apply the water, being careful to pour it into the little trap door. Naturally the water goes down into the jar, and as the vessel fills the cork floats upward, bringing the flowering stem with it of course. After a little pause the whole thing comes with a jerk through the opening in the paper; and if this is the color of the soil the little flap will sink back at once and the deception will not be noticed.

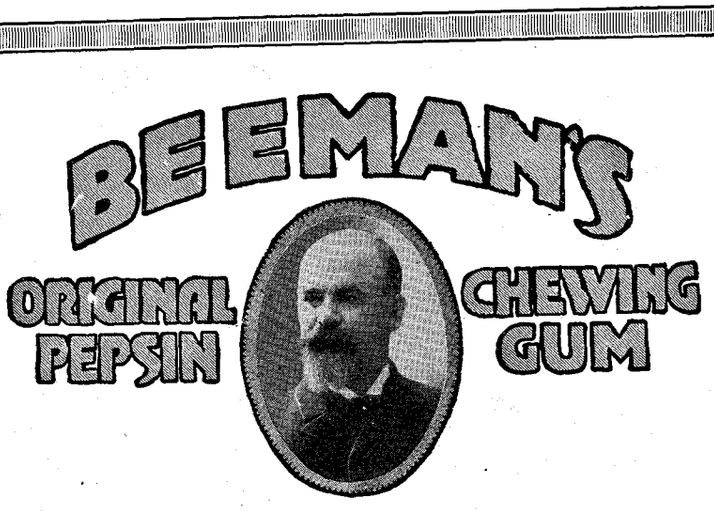
THE MODERN AMERICAN INDIAN

BY FRANK HAMPTON FOX

American literature has long lamented the Indian as a vanishing race with broken arrows and dead camp-fires, while art has pictured him in hopeless desolation at the end of the long trail. It is not surprising, therefore, that many people think of the American Indian as doomed to extinction, like the bison, which once constituted his chief source of food. In the year 1905 nearly one-fourth of the Indians in the United States died. Since that time increased medical service along with better housing and improved sanitation seem to have placed the red men on a plane of steady increase which during the past ten years amounts to 11.8 per cent. While this rate of increase is not large, it shows that the American Indians, who now number 336,243, are far from being a dying race.

The record of our Indian in the world war shows him standing shoulder to shoulder with the white man on all of the heights of heroism. Ten thousand Indians served in some branch of the Army or Navy; seven thousand of these enlisted; among them were many commissioned officers, of whom a considerable number were advanced to the rank of captain and major. The Indian distinguished himself in every station of military service, proving himself a true American.

In many ways the war served as a liberal education for the Indians, especially for those who never had been off of the reservations before they enlisted and were sent overseas. These Indians returned from the war with greater individuality and a diminished tribal propensity. They are less timid, have greater self-confidence and increased respect for authority. The Indian soldier acquired a certain definite and valuable quality of genuine Americanism, which will henceforth become a valuable part of his life and character as a citizen. He acquired a better use of English, a nobler self-respect, greater industry, cleaner



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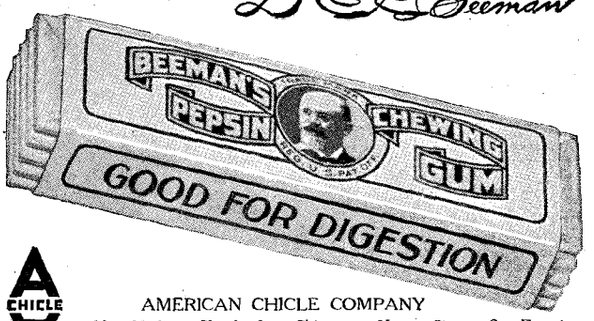
D. E. Beeman



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The Modern American Indian (Continued)

personal habits, all of which stand out noticeably in the returned Indian soldier.

The war was an urge and an education to the Indians remaining on the reservations. These responded nobly to the call for increased production. In many places Indian farmers actually doubled the yield of their soil. They not only learned to save, but discovered many new things about industry and its rewards, about thrift and its returns. They had the satisfaction that follows personal achievement.

Their native generosity learned the art of effective aid through the organized philanthropy of war relief agencies. On many reservations practically every adult subscribed a Red Cross membership fee or more. The Indian women prepared over one hundred thousand hospital garments. The girls in Indian boarding-schools sent over five hundred Christmas boxes to the soldiers. Mrs. Sarah Valandre, an Indian on a South Dakota Reservation, began a soldier's sweater at 2 P.M. and completed the garment, which was an excellent piece of work, at 10:30 the same evening. A Ute Indian woman, seventy-five years old, limped into the agency and gave $500 out of her total savings of $513 to the Red Cross. Three Indians each gave a steer, which brought a total of $210, for the Red Cross. An Indian woman came seventeen miles to give her dollar for the Red Cross, saying, "I want to do something for my country." Our Indians purchased $25,000,000 worth of Liberty Bonds. Jackson Barnett, of Henryetta, Oklahoma, owns $1,400,000 worth of Liberty Loan Bonds. The Indians bought Government bonds equivalent to $75 for every Indian of any age in the United States. Indian children, chiefly out of their own savings, purchased most of the $500,000 worth of Savings Stamps.

The modern Indian occupies an important place in industrial America. The severe indictment brought against the Government in former years, characterizing its dealings with the Indians as "a shameful record of broken treaties and unfulfilled promises," is certainly not true to-day. The Government has shown no keener conscience anywhere than in its policy toward the Indians. The present attitude of the Government toward the Indian is sympathetic, humane, and definitely practical. The Indian has responded to this better treatment in a splendid way.

During the war the pupils in the Indian schools answered the patriotic call for summer work. One school reported three hundred boys and girls employed in white families by the end of June. The larger boys worked in the beet fields, on the fruit farms, and in other summer occupations. Older students entered the munition plants, and fifty entered the Hog Island shipyards. There never has been a hint or suggestion that an Indian ever drove spikes into a saw log or threw a wrench into a machine.

The Indians have extensive landed and industrial interests. They own 71,000,000 acres of land. Their income last year from crops and the sale of live stock aggregated $14,000,000; from leases and land sales, $9,000,000 more; from wages, $3,200,000; from all sources, exclusive of minerals, they received over $42,000,000.

There are 36,328 Indian farmers in the United States, cultivating one million acres of land. There are 47,124 Indians engaged in stock-raising, their live stock being valued at $38,000,000.

Besides these activities of individual

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The Modern American Indian (Continued)

Indians, the Indian Service maintains large herds of stock as tribal property. One flock of sheep, numbering four thousand, netted with its increase in four years $145,000. A herd of ten thousand cattle in the same time yielded a profit, including natural increase, of $600,000.

In connection with practical reservation industries the Government conducts twelve demonstration and three experimentation farms. Nearly four hundred farmers, stockmen, and assistants are employed and live near the Indian communities to give them instruction and advice. Under the authority of law, the Indian Service of the Government loans large sums of money annually to the Indians as initial capital for beginning their self-support.

The Government is devoting special attention to increasing the production of Indian lands by irrigation. About four hundred thousand acres of their cultivated land are now irrigated. Nearly one million acres more are included in the proposed projects of irrigation. So far the Government has expended $17,000,000 on the irrigation of Indian lands, which brought a return in last year's crop alone of $12,000,000.

The sawmills on the Indian lands employ four hundred Indians. They cut twenty million feet of lumber annually, the product going into the markets in many States and some of it to Europe. During the past decade one plant has produced $1,500,000 worth of lumber. There are seventy-three sawmills on the Indian reservations.

During the past six years $28,000,000 in royalties have been paid to the Indians for oil, gas, coal, and other minerals. The total wealth of the Indians in the United States is not far from one billion dollars. In 1918 the Indians had on deposit in the banks or in the hands of superintendents $23,020,264, and a balance in the Treasury funds of $42,675,101. The whole Indian atmosphere is surcharged with the idea that they must soon stand on their own feet, make their own way, pay taxes, feed, clothe, and educate themselves the same as the white man.

The Government has rendered the Indians a great service in removing as far as possible from him the white man's vices, such as liquor, gambling, and licentiousness, which at one time threatened his extinction.

In recent years Indians have won many prizes in competition with the whites. Indian products have been shown at nearly every State fair in the States where Indian reservations are located, in many cases the agricultural products of the Indians taking prizes over those of the white farmers.

Careful attention is given by the Government to the education of the Indian children in Americanism, industry, and sanitation. Two hundred physicians, ably assisted by a corps of competent field matrons, have checked infant mortality to such an extent that the births now far exceed the deaths. The Government has demonstrated that health is almost wholly a matter of education and sanitation. At the baby show held in connection with the South Dakota State Fair the first prize was awarded to Guy M. Howe, Jr., an Indian baby from the Crow Creek Reservation, who scored 95.5 per cent out of a possible 100 per cent. This was in competition with white babies as well as red from all over the State.

The foregoing facts indicate that the Indian will occupy an important place in the future life of the Nation.

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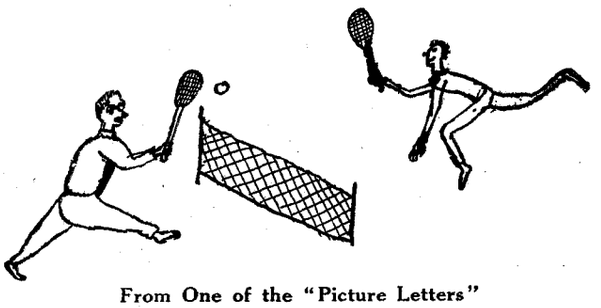

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FINANCIAL DEPARTMENT

The Financial Department is prepared to furnish information regarding standard investment securities, but cannot undertake to *advise* the purchase of any specific security. It will give to inquirers facts of record or information resulting from expert investigation, and a nominal charge of one dollar per inquiry will be made for this special service. All letters of inquiry should be addressed to THE OUTLOOK FINANCIAL DEPARTMENT, 381 Fourth Avenue, New York.

CAN YOU SELL IT?

THERE are more people in the United States to-day with money to invest than there ever have been before. Most of these people, however, have had practically no experience with investments. The buying of securities is an entirely new field of activity so far as they are concerned. In spite of the wide distribution of the Liberty Loans, the term "bond" does not mean a great deal; "stock" may be an equally mysterious word. How many people know the essentials of a good investment, and therefore how to purchase stocks and bonds intelligently? It is true that almost every one realizes the importance of inquiring as to the safety of a contemplated purchase, and a question that is asked almost universally is, "Will it go up?" A fair question, too, and one to be considered, but not to the exclusion of everything else.

There is another question that prospective investors might ask with more advantage, and one which too few seem to consider. It is, "Can I sell this security easily?" A satisfactory answer to this query will go far to determine the desira-

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In the sixteenth century, gold and silver were almost the sole mediums of commercial exchange. The merchant kept his idle money in a strong-box at home, or, for greater security, at the goldsmith's. Such unemployed capital earned nothing. It took nearly three hundred years to develop deposit banking, and the many other facilities offered by modern financial institutions.

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Financial Department (Continued)

bility of any investment. In order to sell there must be a demand. There is not much of a demand for a thing that is not worth having. If there is a demand for a certain security, it is fairly safe to say that it is valuable. In other words, ability to sell, a ready market, should be one of the prime tests of a good investment.

Think of this test from a personal point of view. Few people can afford to ignore the possibility of a "rainy day." The time may always come when you will need cash—need it immediately perhaps. If your savings are invested in securities for which there is a market—a steady demand—you can sell and get the cash to satisfy this need. A bond or a share of stock is worth only what you can sell it for. If nobody will buy your securities, they certainly are not as valuable as those for which there are a large number of purchasers. It is like an auction; the more bidders there are, the keener the competition and the higher the price. Many a salesman trying to dispose of questionable securities has been entirely confounded when asked about a future market for his wares. He is eager enough to sell to you, but what assurance can he give that, once having purchased, there is any one willing to buy from you? And this is something to think about.

Banks recognize the value of marketability in an investment and will loan money far more readily on this kind of securities than on those which are difficult to sell. They must keep their funds "liquid"—that is, easily convertible into cash—and their own investments are in marketable securities. If this practice is advantageous for banks, why not for individuals?

If you examine the bid and asked quotations on the financial pages of the papers, you will notice that sometimes the price at which a certain security is offered for sale is perhaps only an eighth of a point above the price bid for it. In other cases there may be twenty points difference. Often you will see an "asked" price, but nothing bid. Many securities are not quoted at all. There may be a market for them, but it is "narrow," and it will take some time to locate it. When you do find it, it is apt to take still more time to come to an agreement as to the selling price, the negotiations usually ending in a compromise.

Liberty Bonds, however, can be sold at a moment's notice. This is also true of most of the securities dealt in on the New York Stock Exchange. Some of them may be worth no more intrinsically than many so-called "outside" securities, but there is a demand for them, and they are worth more on this account. And with reason. Suppose that, instead of securities, you were buying building lots. A lot in the city is worth more than one in the country because there is more demand for lots in a city. The lot situated in the country may contain better soil, be worth more intrinsically, but it will be harder to sell and will not bring as much money. So with securities. Moreover, few people who buy securities plan to keep them all their lives, as is often the case with a building lot. It behooves every purchaser, therefore, to consider the possibility of having to sell and to investigate the possibilities. It seems hardly too much to say that the value of an investment is in direct proportion to your ability to sell it.

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THE OUTLOOK COMPANY
381 Fourth Ave., N. Y.

JAPAN AND CHINA

In "The Case for Japan," in your issue of August 20, a remark that may create a false impression is that as to the high price of coal in Shanghai as being because China's coal-fields are not developed. As well say that the high price in New York is owing to the want of development of mines in America. The war doubled the price of coal here, as it did in many other places.

The writer refers to the railway from Shanghai to Woosung, giving the impression that it was never rebuilt, whereas many trains a day are now running on it.

With regard to Japan and Shantung this seems to me a fair comparison—a robber gets a rich prize from some victim. A second robber overcomes the first, therefore (according to Mr. Wheeler) the second robber is entitled to keep the loot, even though the rightful owner makes a claim.

No one who knows China will deny that she is a backward nation. Shall she therefore be delivered to the tender mercies of Japan that she may be exploited as Korea has been? "The Japanese have been faithful to their treaty obligations," etc. Has Japan been honorable? What does the testimony of Mr. Lansing indicate in regard to the Lansing-Ishii agreement? Japan has perhaps kept her word with strong nations, but she has broken all the promises expressed and implied in regard to Korea. It is well that you did not ask any foreign resident in the East to present the case for Japan, for you would have found it difficult to find one willing to say a good word for the Japanese Government. Mr. Wheeler refers to the tone of the German press before the war. If he could see some of the extracts from Japanese papers that have come under my notice, he would confess that Japan was trying to provoke America to declare war. In all that I have said I refer to the autocratic Government and not to the people, for the Japanese people have practically nothing to do with the government of the country.

HENRY V. S. MYERS.

Shanghai, China.

TOLD BY ADVERTISEMENTS

(From the Elizabeth, N. J., "Journal")

Some one who is observing has discovered the deep significance of the following "Help Wanted" advertisements which appeared side by side in a recent issue of the Raleigh, North Carolina, "News-Observer:"

> Wanted—Colored barber for white trade in camp town; permanent position. We guarantee $25 per week. Right man can make $35 per week. Let us hear from you at once. Fleming & Elliott, 6 Market Square, Fayetteville, N. C.
>
> Wanted—Teacher of Latin for Lumberton High School, Lumberton, N. C.; salary, $70 a month. W. H. Cale, Superintendent.

If it were the practice in New Jersey for boards of education and school trustees to advertise for teachers, as other employers do for service, the columns of the newspapers would soon be occupied with advertisements that would be quite as eloquent in presenting the disparity of teachers' wages as compared with the wages of those otherwise employed as these from the Southern newspaper.

Commissioner of Education Calvin N. Kendall will recommend in his annual report that the salary minimum for teachers in this State shall be $1,200 a year. A salary of $1,200 a year, however, is only a little more than $23 a week. The present minimum, as everybody knows, is a long ways short of the amount he will ask.

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